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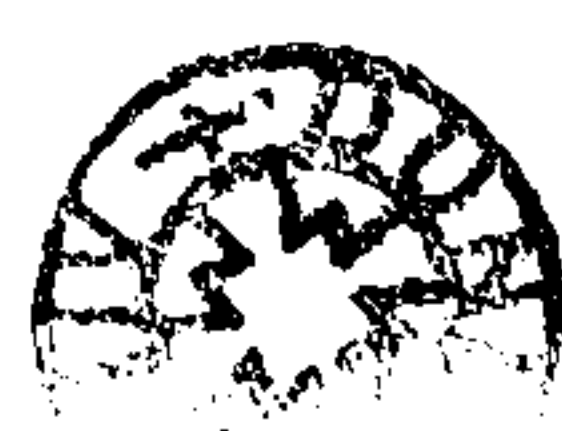
**A COOPERATIVE TASK-BASED LEARNING
APPROACH TO MOTIVATING LOW
ACHIEVING READERS OF ENGLISH IN A
TAIWANESE UNIVERSITY**

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HSU, TSU-CHIA (JULIA)

Ed. D. THESIS

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**A Cooperative Task-based Learning Approach
to Motivating Low Achieving Readers
of English in a Taiwanese University**

Hsu, Tsu-Chia (Julia)

**A thesis submitted on partial fulfilment of the
requirement for the degree of Doctor of Education**

**School of Education
The University of Durham**

2007

“Praise, commendation, and conspicuous reinforcers are among the ways observed in practice. However, we must have competence in reading if it is to bring us pleasure and satisfaction; the real reinforcers, then, are the books themselves. It follows that teachers should work toward the time when the natural reinforcers will be built up.”

~ *Skinner, B.F. (1977)*

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I declare that this thesis, which I submit for the degree of Doctor in Education at the University of Durham, is my own work. This is not the same as any other work which has previously been submitted for a degree in any other institutes or universities.

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ABSTRACT

In this thesis I address the current situation of some first-year university students in Taiwan who had low English scores on their university entrance examinations. These students who were in C level “achievement grouping” (AG) English instruction classes did not necessarily perform at their full potential in English language. I suspected that the reasons behind these low achievement levels may lie in two assumptions, one of which Brophy (2004) addressed with four categories of students based upon how expectancy-related motivational problems might cause students to develop low expectations for themselves. In addition we must also consider the high value, which Chinese place upon the maintenance of ‘face’. This concept specifically involves how being labelled as a “low-achievement” pupil could bring a shadow of shame and loss of “face” to the family and oneself. The other idea involved is that the use of AG, which might cause some of the more capable students to lower their achievement levels in English. These phenomena might echo Weiner’s work on Attribution Theory in 1992, and these internal factors are very likely to cause various learners’ difficulties with and discouragement in English reading at the college level.

Although some research (Shen et al., 2001, Anden-Close, 1999) has also indicated the problems which exist in EFL reading courses, little research has been conducted to study students’ particular limitations when they try to improve their EFL reading abilities in the universities of Taiwan. However, some domestic studies in Taiwan have addressed the positive relationship between a learner’s motivation and learning achievement (Huang, 2004, Chang, 2002, Hsu, 1993). It is commonly observed that the majority of low achievers possessed lower motivations to learn the English language. Hence, the purpose of this study is to seek an effective teaching strategy and then to demonstrate how this action research project can improve students’ motivation and their reading skills EFL.

In order to address these issues, I applied Action Research and placed myself into two roles in this project as I became more aware of this problem: the role of the researcher and of the teacher. The fundamental purpose in this action research project is to seek an effective approach to the teaching of reading, one that will help these students to enhance their confidence and motivation and as a consequence their reading skills. The approach which seemed most likely to succeed was found in the literature on ‘cooperative learning.’ Because Cooperative Learning facilitates cooperation among learners, it is vitally important to reinforce the team members’ trust and confidence. With this point in mind, Task-Based Language Teaching was added because it encourages frequent interactions and positive involvements, which are crucial for reinforcing motivation. I thus have generated and applied a new pedagogy integrating

these two methods in my research. I utilized this pedagogy, Cooperative Task-Based Learning (CTBL), based on a model of motivation for students with low achievement levels, and in so doing, I changed the entire dynamics in the traditional Taiwanese classroom.

To evaluate the success of this teaching, data were collected from interview accounts, self-reflective logs and field notes, observations and a collection of students' group work sheets. These multiple perspectives created a triangulation of data. In so doing, my intention was to examine the possible relationship between a CTBL strategy and motivation and thus to address the issues raised in this research.

This empirical study elicited numerous positive outcomes from both the teacher's and the students' perspectives and the findings support the positive aspects of application of a CTBL approach to first year university students who have low achievement status with the idea of facilitating their motivations to learn English. Thus, I demonstrate that cooperative group work proves to be a more effective learning strategy and also that a CTBL pedagogy might be a solution in developing their motivation to read more.

To conclude, I draw out some useful implications based on the findings. A number of suggestions for future research are made. It is hoped that studies that are relevant to this thesis will be undertaken using further applications of a CTBL strategy as a solution for those who suffer from difficulty in English.

To my heavenly father

*who devoted his lifetime to contributing to Taiwan's education always keeps
me protected and looks upon him.*

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Contents

Abstract ii

Dedication iv

Acknowledgements v

Table of Contents vi

Lists of Figures, Tables, and Abbreviations xvii

Chapter 1 Introduction to Research Scene 1

1.0 Preamble 1

1.1 Purpose of This Study 3

1.2 Rationale of This Thesis 3

1.2.1 Taiwan's Context 3

1.2.2 How to Motivate Students to Read More 7

1.3 My Empirical Research 8

1.4 Organization of This Thesis 9

1.5 Summary 11

Chapter 2 Teaching and Learning English Reading in Taiwan's Higher Education Milieu 12

2.1 Educational Context Within Taiwan's Higher Educational System 13

2.1.1 The English Language in Taiwan within a Global Context 13

2.2 Learners in Taiwan's HE: Why There Are So Many Students Who Have
Difficulty in English Reading 15

2.2.1 Situational Teaching and Learning 15

2.2.2 Specific Problems Elucidated in This Study 17

2.3	Review of Current Teaching and Reading Learning Experiences of First-year University Students within Taiwan's Higher Education Framework	17
2.3.1	English Education within Taiwan's Higher Education System	17
2.3.1.1	The Earlier Learning and Teaching of Reading in Secondary Schools	18
2.3.1.2	The Present University Reading Course for the First-year Students in General	20
2.4	Finding an Action Research Method to Motivate First-year University Students to Read	25
2.4.1	Cooperative Learning Task-Based Teaching Learning (CTBL) strategy might be a solution for Taiwanese university first-year learners with low achievement levels	25
2.5	Research Question	26
2.6	Summary	27

Chapter 3 Literature Analysis 28

Part I Towards a Framework for the Planning of the Teaching: CTBL (Cooperative Task-based Learning) in Educational Contexts 28

3.1	What is Cooperative Learning?	28
3.1.1	Definition	29
3.1.2	Key Components of Cooperative Learning	30
3.1.3	Cooperative Learning Methods	30
3.1.3.1	Three Main Cooperative Learning Methods Applied in this Study	31
3.2	Utilising a CL Method in a Foreign Language Classroom	35
3.2.1	Increasing Students' Motivation in a CL Group	36
3.2.2	Enhancing Group Cohesion and Efficacy through group work	37

3.2.3	The Roles of the Teacher and Students	39
3.2.4	Cooperative Learning and the Learners	39
3.2.5	Low Achievers within a Cooperative Learning Setting	40
3.3	Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)	41
3.3.1	Background Review	41
3.3.2	Why is TBLT an applicable Second Language Teaching Approach?	42
3.3.3	The Features and the Principles of TBLT	44
3.3.4	What is a Task?	46
3.3.5	Framework for TBLT	49
	A. Establishing a pedagogical framework for TBLT in L2 Course Design	49
	B. Providing opportunities for learners to Practice the Target Language	52
3.3.6	Task Components to Implement TBLT Successfully within This Thesis	52
3.3.7	Roles of Teachers and Learners	52
3.3.8	Low achievers and TBLT	53
3.3.9	The Application of TBLT in Taiwan for Language Use	54
3.3.10	TBLT Promotes Students Motivation	55
3.4	Teaching of Learners with Low Achievement	56
3.4.1	Categories of Students with Expectancy-related Motivational Problems	56
3.4.2	Possible Effective Motivational Theories to Improve Learning	57
3.4.3	Conclusion: The Use of CTBL as Possible Solution for Low Achievers	60

***Part II Towards an Approach for Analyzing Teaching Data: Motivation to Learning
a Second/ Foreign Language*** **61**

3.5	Introduction	61
3.5.1	Motivation: An Overview	61
3.5.2	What is “Motivation”?	62
3.5.3	Influential Contemporary Motivational Theories in Psychology: Drive theory, Self-determination Theory, Achievement Theory, Attribution Theory, Self-worth Theory, Self-efficacy Theory, Goal Theories	62
3.5.3.1	Expectancy-value Framework: Achievement Theory, Attribution theory, Self-worth Theory, and Self-efficacy Theory	63
3.5.3.1.1	Achievement Theory	63
3.5.3.1.2	Attribution Theory	64
3.5.3.1.3	Self-worth Theory	65
3.5.3.1.4	Self-efficacy Theory	65
3.5.3.1.5	Goal Theories	66
3.5.3.1.6	Summary	67
3.6	Other Relevant Theories in Relation to Reading in a Foreign Language	67
3.6.1	First Language Reading Motivation	67
3.6.2	Second Language Reading Motivation	68
3.7	The Scope of Motivational Construct and Second Language Learning	69
3.7.1	Overview: Second Language Learning Motivation Psychology	69
3.8	Alternative Theoretical Approaches with L2 Motivation	70
3.8.1	Expectancy-value Theories in L2 Motivation Research	70
3.8.2	Attribution Theory and L2 Motivation	71

3.8.3	Self-determination Theory and L2 Motivation	71
3.8.4	Goal Theories and L2 Motivation	72
3.9	The Most Influential Social Psychologist: Robert Gardner	72
3.9.1	Gardner's L2 Motivation Scene	72
3.9.2	Gardner's Definition of Motivation	73
3.9.3	Three Aspects of Gardner's Motivation Theory Influencing Second/Foreign Language Learning	75
3.10	Conclusion: The Postulated Model of Motivation for Reading Success in the Second/ Foreign Language	79
3.11	Summary	80

Chapter 4. Research Process, Design and Methodology **81**

4.1	Research Questions	81
4.2	Educational Research Design and Method	81
4.2.1	What is Action Research?	83
4.2.2	The Participants	84
4.2.3	The Teacher	85
4.2.4	Theme, Learning Materials, Activities and Group Work	86
4.3	Data Collection	87
4.3.1	Classroom Procedure	88
4.3.1.1	Data Collection and Chronology	92
4.3.2	Research Techniques for Data Collection	94
4.3.2.1	Individual and Focus Group Interview	94
4.3.2.2	Self-Reflective Logs	96
4.3.2.3	Audiotape and Video Records of Lessons	98
4.3.2.4	Observation	99

4.3.2.5	Other Data Related to the Study	101
4.3.3	Triangulation	103
4.3.3.1	Triangulation for Data Collection of the Study	103
4.3.3.2	Triangulation of Data Collection	105
4.4	General Procedures for Data Analysis	106
4.4.1	Modes of Data Analysis for this Study	107
4.4.2	Analyzing Content	107
4.4.3	Translation	109
4.4.4	A timeline for the Data Analysis of the Study	109
4.5	Trustworthiness in the Analysis of Qualitative Data	110
4.6	Ethical Issues and Informed Consent	114-115
4.7	Summary	115

Chapter 5. Teacher's Perspective: Teacher's Beliefs About Teaching and Learning 116

5.1	Definition of CTBL	116
5.1.1	Definition of CL	116
5.1.2.	Definition of TBLT	117
5.2	Operationalization of CTBL	117
5.2.1	CL Examples of a Detailed Lesson Plan	117
5.2.2	TBLT Examples Selected from the Teacher's Entire Lesson Plan	120
5.3	Analysis of 'Success'	122
5.3.1	Examples of CL Noticed by the Teacher and RA	123
5.3.2	Examples of TBLT Noticed by the Teacher and RA	128
5.4	Motivation to Read	133
5.4.1	Examples of Motivation Noticed by the Teacher and RA	134

Chapter 6 Students' Perception 137

6.1	Motivation for Second Language reading in CTBL Study	137
6.1.1	CTBL Study Model	138
6.1.1.1	Dimension I of CTBL Motivation Model	138
6.1.1.2	Dimension II of CTBL Motivation Model	143
6.2	Student' Perception of CTBL Group Work	149
6.2.1	Analysis of the Relationship Between CTBL and Group Cohesion	150
6.2.1.1	The presence of Group Cohesion- Linking the members to one another	150
6.2.1.2	The presence of Group Cohesion- Linking the members to the group	152
6.2.1.3	Group Cohesion caused by the CTBL strategy	153
6.2.2	Analysis of the Relationship Between CTBL and Group Efficacy	155
6.2.2.1	Group Efficacy Experience	155
6.2.2.2	Relationship between CTBL and Group Efficacy	159
6.2.3	Analysis of the Relationship Between Group Cohesion and Group Efficacy	161
6.2.3.1	Examining the relationship between Group Cohesion and Group Efficacy	161
6.2.4	Analysis of the Relationship Between Group Cohesion and Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation	163

6.2.4.1	Experiencing positive attitudes	163
6.2.4.2	Analysis of the Relationship between Group Cohesion and Attitudes Towards the Learning Situation	171
6.2.5	Analysis of the Relationship Between Group Efficacy and Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation	172
6.2.6	Analysis of the Relationship Between CTBL and Members' Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation	174
6.2.6.1	Students Experiencing CTBL and Learning Materials	174
6.2.6.2	Students Experiencing the Relationship Between CTBL and Class Teamwork	175
6.2.6.3	Students Experiencing CTBL activities/ tasks	176
6.2.7	Analysis of the Relationship Between Members' Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation and Self-efficacy	177
6.2.7.1	Students Experiencing Self-efficacy	178
6.2.7.2	Positive Attitudes toward the Learning Situation	180
6.2.8	Analysis of the Relationship Between Members' Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation and the Desire to Learn	182
6.2.8.1	Experience of "Desire to learn"	182
6.2.8.2	Positive Attitudes Lead to Desire to Learn More	184
6.2.9	Analysis of the Relationship Between Members' Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation and Goal Salience	185
6.2.9.1	The Role of Goal Salience	185

6.2.9.2	The Goal Setting was Determined by Members' Positive Attitudes toward the Learning Situation	188
6.2.10	Analysis of the Relationship Between Motivational Behaviour and Three Variables: Self-efficacy, Goal Salience and Desire to Learn	189
6.2.10.1	The behaviour of 'Making Efforts'	190
6.2.10.2	The behaviour of 'Being Persistent'	190
6.2.10.3	The motivational behaviour of "Paying Attention"	191
6.2.10.4	Self efficacy, Goal Salience, and Desire to Learn lead to motivational behaviour	192
6.2.11	The Effect of Enhanced Motivational Behaviour on Reading Skills	196
6.2.11.1	Students' Accounts of Improvements in Reading Skills	196
6.2.11.2	Other Language Skills Also Improved	198
6.2.11.3	Motivational Behaviour Leads to Improved Reading Skills	200
6.2.11.4	Motivational Behaviour Leads to Improved Other Skills	201
6.2.12	Summary	202

Chapter 7 Implications and Suggestions 203

7.0	A Journey on Implementing a CTBL Approach in this Thesis	203
7.1	Theoretical and Practical Implications	205
7.2	Implications for Expanding more Authentic Related Teaching Materials Incorporating Group Process	205
7.3	Implication for Two Additional Components within the CTBL Motivational Framework	207

7.4	Mastering Effective Pedagogies Necessary for Teachers to Meet Students' Needs	208
7.5	Implication for Language Teacher's Awareness of Learners' Psychology	208
7.6	Limitations of This Study and the Need for Further Research	209
7.7	Suggestions for Further Research	211

Chapter 8	Conclusion	215
------------------	-------------------	------------

Bibliography	218
---------------------	------------

Appendices	239
-------------------	------------

Appendix	Title
1	The participants' English scores of this university on their university examination in 2005
2	The Diagram of All Students' English Scores of This University According to Their Entrance Examination in 2005
3	The TBLT framework invented by Willis in 1996
4	Questions after Cooperative Learning Classes
5	Informed Consent
6	Lesson Sample 1
7	Sample 1 Lesson Plan
8	Pre-test (GEPT)
9	Post-test (GEPT)
10	Students' Self-reflective Weekly Logs for the First 4 Weeks
11	Students' Self-reflective Weekly Logs for the Rest of 4 Weeks
12	Small-Group observation sheet
13	List of small-group labour division
14	Cooperative learning self-evaluation sheet
15	Evaluation sheet of group performance
16	Interactive worksheet of dialogue with cartoons
17	Semi-structured Interview accounts Sample 1
18	Teacher's self-reflective logs Sample 1
19	Observation Note Sample 1
20	Students' Group Activity Sample 1

List of Figures, Tables and Abbreviations

Figure	Title
3.1	The General Key Elements of ‘Tasks’ in TBLT 49
3.2	The Framework for TBLT Proposed by Nunan in 2004 51
3.3	Tremblay and Gardner’s model of L2 Motivation in 1995 79
6.1	Motivation for Foreign Language Reading in CTBL Study 139
6.2	Dimension I of CTBL Motivation Model 140
6.3	Dimension II of CTBL Motivation Model 144

<i>Table</i>	<i>Title</i>
--------------	--------------

1	Students Enrolled in Taiwan's Universities in the Past Decade	5
3.1	Modern Methods of Cooperative Learning	31
3.2	Nunan's Suggestion of Principles for TBLT	45
3.3	Key Definitions of 'Tasks' in TBLT	46
3.4	The Framework Description of a Task-based Lesson on Willis's Work in 1996	50
3.5	Categories of Students with Expectancy-related Motivational Problems	57
3.6	Types of Different Goals	59
3.7	Gardner's Motivation Theory and My Study	75
4.1	Time Frames for Data Collection Procedures	92
4.2	Role Assignments and Job Description	103
4.3	Triangulation of Data Collection	106
4.4	A Timeline for the Data Analysis of the Study	110
4.5	Five Major Techniques Underlying the Concept of Trustworthiness Suggested by Lincoln & Guba (1985)	112
6.1	Interview Questions List 1	157
6.2	Interview Questions List 2	198

Abbreviations

Alphabetic order as follows:

AG	Achievement Grouping
AR	Action Research
AMTB	Attitude/Motivation Test Battery
CIRC	Cooperative Integrated Reading & Composition
CL	Cooperative Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CTBL	Cooperative Task-based Learning
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EM	Extrinsic Motivation
ETS	Educational Testing System
GEPT	General English Proficiency Test
HE	Higher Education
IM	Intrinsic Motivation
LTTC	Language Training & Testing Center
MOE	Ministry of Education
RA	Research Assistant
STAD	Student Teams-Achievement Divisions
TAI	Team Accelerated Instruction
TBLT	Task-based Language Teaching
TGT	Teams-Games-Tournaments
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
WC	Whole Class

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to the Research Scene

1.0 Preamble

In reflecting on my professional days of teaching English at university level in Taiwan, I became increasingly concerned over my first-year students who were in “achievement grouping” classes and who had undergone year after year of English instruction. Despite the years of instruction, many of them were still lacking reading motivation and confidence. I taught different students each year. Unfortunately, at the end of each year many students remained at low achievement levels, especially those pupils in the basic (C level) classes. The EFL courses of this university at which I taught before 2006 were grouped into three scales: advanced (A level), intermediate (B level), and basic (C level), according to the applicants’ scores on university entrance examinations. Basically, this exam determines those who are qualified to enter general universities to continue their higher education in Taiwan. (See Appendix 1 and 2 for further details of student levels). It is worth noting that the university at which I taught maintains a relatively high academic reputation and thus the people who enrol in this institution exhibit high academic performance levels compared to other universities. Besides, the EFL course with a focus on reading is a required subject for all first-year university learners in this school although other universities in Taiwan also offer different first-year English courses for their pupils.

From my experiences in teaching C level classes, I learned that they either found learning English to be too difficult or very boring, when reading the assigned textbooks. Moreover, their learning attitudes from C levels with a limit of their English ability did not necessarily reflect what they actually wanted to express. With these points in mind, I realized that it was extremely important to address the problems facing these lower level students. I believe that there are many factors that caused these C group pupils to have such low achievement score status, but the main factor, I suspect, is motivational problems related to their earlier learning experiences and present teachers’ instruction about English, in Taiwan’s educational context (See chapter 2).

In this thesis, two assumptions for the cause of low motivation for these learners are made, and they are respectively, students’ self-belief and the influence of what is



described by Causal Attribution Theory. As stated by Brown (1994), learning motivation is the extent to which an individual make choices about goals to pursue and the effort one devotes to that pursuit (cited in Hsu, 2004); students' belief on how well they can perform and how hard they should work for their achievement and even the concern of whether the hard work is worthwhile are significant internal factors that can greatly influence the learning outcomes.

Therefore, these factors cause the individuals being labeled with "low achievement status," and may lead, as suggested by Brophy (2004), to four categories of students developing low-expectations for themselves based upon the expectancy-related motivational problems. Further details will be explained in 3.4, 3.4.1 and 3.4.2.

Besides, considering the high value upon the maintenance of 'face' by Chinese people, the low achieving label could bring a shadow of shame to the family and oneself.

Another assumption is that the use of Achievement Grouping (AG), which might cause some of the more capable students to lower their achievement levels in English, and therefore, might have led them to behave in a way that they are expected to, that is, to perform 'right' in their own label. These phenomena might echo Weiner's work on Attribution Theory in 1992. These internal factors are very likely to cause these learners' difficulty and discouragement in English reading at the college level.

Now, let's consider the issue of whether there is likely a relationship between learners' motivation and their achievement. Some psychologists consider motivation to one of the crucial determinants of academic achievement and work productivity (Keller, 1987; Dulay and Burt, 1977). Several domestic studies in Taiwan have also found the positive relationship between learners' motivation and their learning achievement (Liao, 2005, Huang, 2004, Pan and Wu, 2003; Chang, 2002, Hsu, 1993). It is commonly observed that the majority of low achievers possess lower motivations on English language learning, particular in the present study of Taiwan.

This situation of low achieving first-year university students naturally concerns myself and other teachers so much that throughout my years of teaching, I have made strong efforts to develop useful instructional strategies to compensate for these problems. With these thoughts in mind I have participated in many international English teaching and

learning conferences and, therefore, I have developed a possible solution to cope with this issue. This thesis thus focuses on implementing an effective approach to lessen the students' motivational problems and inspire them to enjoy their reading tasks more in their first year university EFL class. In addition, it constitutes action research predicated upon my actual class experiences solely with C level students within Taiwan's higher educational system. In the following pages of this chapter, I will explain in greater detail the purpose and rationale of this thesis.

1.1. Purpose of this Study

As indicated above, in this study I committed myself to improving my teaching technique and have decided to implement a practical action research program. By acting in both roles as a teacher and researcher of this phenomenon, I intend to reach out to the perceived needs of university EFL learners with low achievement levels and to focus on possible solutions.

First, I concern myself with the question of to what degree my efforts can help individuals with low achievement levels to increase their motivation. Second, I consider developing an investigation to see how the new approach I would use to improve students' motivation would affect their reading skills.

In short, the purpose of this empirical study is to identify an effective approach to help this group of low-achieving students.

1.2 Rationale of This Thesis

1.2.1 Taiwan's Context

The English language is currently regarded as one of the world's most important foreign languages. Most European countries use it when dealing with neighbouring Asian nations and there is no exception for Taiwan.

Despite the fact that some people thought that individuals in Taiwan's higher education (HE) system were not likely to experience the supposed menace of international competitiveness this is precisely where we are now experiencing in the 21st century.

Most contemporary English learners in Taiwan are now deeply concerned about the rat race of modern life in the presence of international ruthlessness.

In order to upgrade national competitiveness in the global market, the government of Taiwan has advocated enhancing individual English competition within its language policy (Li 2003). It is argued that an individual possessing good English proficiency enables him/her to meet their challenges in life (MOE, 2006), thus helping him/her to take advantage of currently available world-wide information/technology (MOE, 2007). Despite the fact that these university students are not succeeding in English, the majority of university learners need to pass intermediate level GEPT upon graduation.

Furthermore, following Taiwan's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002, it became essential for members of "the global village" to engage in more economic cooperation and trade exchanges (Lin, 2005). To be specific, during the past few years, Taiwan's HE has faced unprecedented transition and challenges. For example, Lin (2005) postulates that market liberalization is actuating a high demand for a supply of English education both in the private and public sectors prevalent in Taiwan. It is hoped that every university graduate can practice what they had learned in school and enter society as a highly qualified newcomer (MOE, 2007). In light of this globalization opportunity, we absolutely must help our students to develop English abilities in order to survive amongst internationally competitive rivals.

In light of the trend of globalization and educational reform in Taiwan's HE, the number of the individuals enrolled in colleges and universities has been increasing. For instance, ten years ago the total number of these institutions was 84 and more than half of them were universities (MOE of Taiwan 1998). However, the number of universities has grown by nearly 200%, and we now have 147 institutions (not including 16 junior colleges) in Taiwan's HE system (See Table 1), according to recent statistics released by the MOE (2007). To date, the total number of individuals in Taiwan's higher education during 2006-2007 is approximately 1.3 million amongst a total population of approximately 23 million (MOE, 2007). We are accordingly seriously concerned about these rapid increases in the population of Taiwan's HE in the recent years (See Table 1).

It is worth noting that the consequent results of our changing HE milieu involve progressively limited educational resources, including insufficient personnel and funds. This problem specifically means that we are becoming increasingly unable to respond

effectively to the unfavourable aspects of our growing number of college level students. Because of this shift away from our former elite educational situation, our HE system needs to upgrade individuals' academic performance and develop teachers as researchers (MOE, 2007). With the increase in students enrolled in universities in recent years (See Table 1), it is important for us researchers to conduct this kind of research to upgrade the level of students' English ability.

Table 1 *Students Enrolled in Taiwan's Universities in the Past Decade*

MOE in Taiwan	1995	1997	2001	2005- 2006	2006- 2007
The total number of colleges and universities (not including Junior colleges)	60	78	135	145	147 (not including 16 junior colleges)
Enrollment Rates of Students admitted by either universities or colleges	44.38%	60.17%	62.54%	90.93%	96.28%
The total number of Students admitted by either universities or colleges (Only Day Schools)	55,604	74,333	95,590	224,434	225,867
Grand Total for University (not including Junior colleges)	Not available	*0.9	*1.212	*1.115	*1.3

Resource from MOE of Taiwan 1998, 2002, 2006, 2007

(* means million people)

In other instances, this dilution of our former elite educational environment causes many problems in the teaching of English within our HE system, including lower teaching and research funds for teachers due to excessively high student-teacher ratios (MOE, 2006). There is also a wide disparity of English abilities within universities (Luo,

2005) and thus a negative impact on students' achievements caused by pressure from those classmates possessing good English proficiencies (Wu and Chan, 2002). In order to reduce consumption of our limited resources and to improve the quality of learning and teaching at school, we have begun to introduce and to implement achievement grouping (AG) within the highly competitive setting of Taiwan's HE.

Thus, Taiwan's numerous colleges and universities have begun to explore AG, and have commenced implementing this grouping in their first year English courses (Luo, 2005, Chan 2004, Luo and Tsai, 2002, Chien et al. 2002, Tsai et al. 2000, Haakenson et al. 1995, Chien 1987 and Chang, 1992). The fundamental purpose in this type of AG experiment is to help teachers in most of Taiwan's universities to deal with the disparities of individual English proficiencies, and also to provide same level students in a class setting with effective instruction.

Grossen (1996) defines "AG" as, "the assignment of students to different classes according to their level of proficiency" (cited in Luo, 2005: 254). By use of this concept it is hoped to bring positive results for both the students and the teacher. On the one hand, the teachers are able to focus on individuals' needs within the same level, and then to choose the best content of teaching materials to suit their same pupils' English competencies, which would help in the construction of curricula goals, all while the students improve their English proficiency under the teacher's instruction (Luo 2005).

However, AG is not a new idea and it has its problems. For example, there is some international and domestic research which indicates that AG might cause students to feel negative about themselves and thus lack motivation. This phenomenon is not only apparent when AG is introduced in universities, but also in primary and secondary schools. For instance, our AG problems exist specifically because many Taiwan elementary and junior high school students feel ashamed about their learning environment once they are placed in the basic level (Chou and Luo 2003). Wang (1998) describes these pupils as disliking the notion of AG being implemented in their classes (cited in Luo, 2005). Ames (1992) also maintains that AG is sometimes perceived as a way of "social comparison" and has been considered as damaging an individual's motivation. Interestingly, in Taiwan's highly competitive learning environment, we find that many of the "better students" disagreed also with the concept of AG since they are placed amongst the "better" students of the class when many of them want to be "the

best” student, because many of them feel greater pressure to compete with other “the best” students in their classroom (Luo, 2005).

On the other hand, many low achieving students often disapprove of the idea of being labeled as “low level” according to Wang (1998), but unfortunately, they will be encouraged by this to work toward their “labelled” ability instead of their “actual” ability.

With this matter in mind, to better our education, and also to enhance learners’ motivation, we must provide effective learning environments and more successful learning activities and tasks in support of the learning situation (Baker 1998). Anxiety, boredom, and frustration do not promote favourable learning conditions. By implementing effective pedagogy to deal with this issue, we may reasonably expect to develop their motivation to learn English in class. Thus, the key to developing individuals with good English abilities is to motivate them at school and university, which will then help them to meet challenges within the society.

To conclude, I have seen the current situation that exists in the HE AG classes of English, and I hope to help those students with low achievement levels to enhance their motivation beyond this current learning environment. I hope that more and more students in HE will be able to motivate themselves to increase their own abilities to learn and read more in English.

1.2.2 How to Motivate Students to Read More

In Taiwan’s higher educational milieu, little research seeks for possible solutions to motivate low-achievement learners to read more. Most literature and English teachers in the language classroom focus on students acquiring cognitive or meta-cognitive reading skills (i.e. skimming, scanning, identifying the main idea, making inferences, contextual guessing, predicting the information...). This phenomenon echoes Grabe and Stoller’s (2002) definition taking reading skills as “information-processing techniques that are automatic whether at the level of recognizing grapheme-phoneme correspondence or summarizing a story” (p.16). That is to say, once learners acquire these skills, they could automatically apply them to a text.

In terms of metacognitive skills, another influential theory widely discussed in Taiwan is Schema Theory. In light of top-down processing based on schema theory, students are required to relate to their own experiences and prior knowledge to predict the overall purpose of the text, or guessing what the text's main focus will be (Nuttall, 1996). The top-down approach gives a whole perspective for the readers to view the text, but sometimes it is questionable whether they already know about the related information of the text if it is related to a schema unfamiliar to students. Good readers often shift from one processing model (e.g. top-down processing) to the other (e.g. bottom-up processing) to deal with their reading tasks. However, many low-achievement EFL learners suffer from comprehension problems because they tend to just use one of the models (Carrell, 1988).

In addition, many university students are unwilling, particularly in lower level AG groups, to attend EFL courses in many institutes in Taiwan's higher education. This means that EFL learners with low achievement status feel unconfident in class without enough actual reading material that is related to their real life and thus lack motivation or interests to read in the foreign language. In light of this, I believe we need to help them not only to acquire these basic reading skills but more importantly to motivate them to read in the English language by adopting an effective teaching methodology and developing reading material that is interesting and relevant to them.

1.3 My Empirical Research

We now turn to my empirical research. I found that the task-based approach provides more class tasks and materials relevant to real-world situations, which hopefully might create more opportunities for university learners to interact with other peers in reading activities in a "cooperative learning" mode. The value of cooperative learning centres on the sharing of work amongst members of a group and members' learned skills and competencies develop with mutual help, not individual work. Therefore, a cooperative task-based learning strategy involving effective group work might be a solution to developing student's motivation to read more.

The empirical research of this study is designed to explore a combined teaching approach with cooperative learning and task-based teaching and learning strategies. The intention of this study is to investigate through Action Research how students with low

achievement levels can be involved in diverse learning tasks and activities under the teacher's guidance. There are two hypotheses: one is to see whether group work and cooperative learning can enhance students' foreign language motivation to read within cooperative learning contexts, and the other is to explore how a task-based learning approach can increase students' foreign language motivation to read within a cooperative learning context.

In order to develop students' motivation to read by using the method of action research, I formed my research question as follows:

To what extent does a cooperative task-based learning approach (CTBL), with an emphasis on group work, increase motivation to develop reading skills amongst Taiwanese university students with low achievement levels?

To implement this action research, I created a bridge between the two roles of researcher and practitioner through my teaching strategies, which focus on existing current conditions as described by Otto (1992). Above all, action research is an active scientific approach to conducting a particular study, in which the research may help to investigate the current problems as a target for a particular application.

1.4 Organization of This Thesis

This thesis consists of a total of eight chapters:

Chapter One: Contains overview of this entire thesis and the main purpose of this research. Also, it shows the development of this entire thesis from chapter to chapter.

Chapter Two: Presents how all of the educational parameters within Taiwan have been changed, particularly since the trend of globalization along with Taiwan's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002. It aims to identify the current problems, which exist in reading courses of higher education and of how reading strategies would help students with low achievement levels to improve their reading abilities. Via the intervention of proper reading methods, the goal is to improve the reading motivation of Taiwanese first-year students in low achievement situations.

Chapter Three: Investigates and analyzes the theories of cooperative learning and task-based learning (CTBL) methods and discusses how these two strategies can be combined into one effective approach. Second/foreign language motivation to read will also be discussed in the second half of this chapter.

Chapter Four: Focuses on the methodology of this study. Applying both cooperative learning and task-based learning approaches, both teaching methods are presented as a combined teaching system, identified and investigated in Chapter 3, in action research. There will be a detailed explanation of how and what techniques are used to measure students' motivation and the trustworthiness of these applied techniques.

Chapter Five: Explains the teacher's operation of CTBL strategy with participants in real practice. This chapter attempts to view how the teacher operates CTBL lessons and the teacher's role within the language classroom. Sources of data include the teacher's and the research assistant's (RA's) logs. The RA acts as a key person to provide his valuable input as part of triangulated sources within this study, in addition to the teacher's own comments. It aims to present the evidence to see whether the teacher considers herself successful regarding the use of a CTBL strategy in her actual class as a teacher's intervention.

Chapter Six: Presents the analysis of the students' perspective concerning their class activities and reading tasks throughout the process of group work in a cooperative learning setting. This chapter mainly focuses on the findings from an analysis of the relationship between students' motivation and students' perceptions of their achievements. This model presents causal links amongst possible motivational variables emergent from all data, and once the analysis has been completed it will be possible to consider the implications for future reading courses and methods of teaching reading. Thus data in chapter 5 and 6, answer the general research question, from both a teacher's as well as her participants' perspective.

Chapter Seven and Eight: Implications and suggestions in chapter 7 reflect what the teacher had done earlier in her actual teaching experiences with her participants in this study. More applications need to be explored for further researchers. And finally, chapter 8 concludes with the key findings of this research question.

1.5 Summary

In this chapter I have summarized the purpose and the rationale of this thesis. In the following chapter, I will introduce the background to Taiwan's HE. Moreover, I will identify specific situational problems with some of Taiwan's first year university students, and the main problem concerning their low proficiency in English learning and reading.

CHAPTER 2

Teaching and Learning English Reading in Taiwan's Higher Educational Milieu

2.0 Introduction

In chapter One, I explained that the rationale of this study is to increase the global view of English as a foreign language for university EFL learners in Taiwan, particularly for students with low achievement levels. There is no alternative pedagogical framework to helping learners to read a foreign language other than meeting their special needs thus motivating them to read (Brown, 1987). Therefore, the CTBL strategy of this study, within the parameters of the teacher's intervention, aims to stimulate pupils to developing their reading skills in English.

In this chapter, we will see that the entire educational parameters within Taiwan have emerged into a new dimension since the trend of globalization commenced a decade ago. To be specific, the English language within the global context of Taiwan's higher educational system is shown to be the focus of a severely competitive environment even to the diminution of other languages. Given the contemporary globalization trend, our university students need to exchange their learned information in order to integrate their most useful skills and knowledge and then to introduce these abilities and experiences to the world. In our higher educational institutions, we presently concern ourselves with preparing our university graduates for global competition in the area of higher academics and this situation places critical demands on their advanced reading abilities and skills.

Thus, reading courses are crucial in our HE educational milieu because there may be insufficient research helping university instructors to explore more applications, particularly regarding effective teaching methods, while teaching the lower level of university EFL learners. In addition, I will also examine the current literature on reading, which is relevant to the particular problem with Taiwanese first-year university learners' difficulties in reading English. This phenomenon thus requires that the study of reading English be taught at the university level in Taiwan.

2.1 Educational Context Within Taiwan's Higher Educational System

2.1.1 The English language in Taiwan within a global context

For many years, Taiwan's government had experienced difficulties in negotiations regarding joining the World Trade Organization (WTO). However, after lengthy and often heated discussions Taiwan eventually joined the WTO on January 1 2002. Since then, the impact of this event on Taiwan's higher educational market has caused excessive competition with concomitant fighting for entrance to better institutions of higher learning. In order to adapt to the impact of internationalization, globalization, information technologies, and Taiwan's entry into WTO as a benchmark, a transformational development has occurred which reverberated throughout Taiwan's entire educational structure.

Concerning higher education, globalization has spurred the triggering of a freely competitive educational market throughout Taiwan's universities, which directly compete with other international higher educational institutions. In order to adapt to changes in Taiwan's higher educational system, Li (2003) proposes that we need to focus on not only reinforcing professional abilities in different fields, but also on upgrading students' English communicative competencies. In addition, Taiwan's Executive Yuan in 2002 pushed forward a six-year project on the basis of an enriched strong economy-oriented educational structure, in order to build a national development essential plan, called 'Challenge 2008: National Development Plan.' Within the framework of this project, the goal is to "... to transform Taiwan into 'a green silicon island' in the 21st century" (MOE 2004a; MOE 2004b; MOE 2003a; MOE 2003b; MOE no date cited in Lai, 2007). We thus hope that our nation will develop a strong economy through people's English-language communication.

Moreover, the government has declared that English in 2008 is Taiwan's most important foreign language (Li, 2003). Indeed, the ability of people to use an international language plays a key role in the survival and success of Taiwan's national economy (Lin, 2005). Meanwhile, national education documents (MOE: 2004a: 54; MOE 2005:54) have stressed "... through careful planning, we are able to create an optimal educational environment to cultivate citizens for the era of a knowledge-based economy." With these concepts in mind it is reasonable to maintain that English learning and teaching in Taiwan's HE is expected to promote internationalisation and

also lead to economic benefits within the contemporary trends of globalization.

While experiencing the development of globalization, many policy makers and practitioners argue that higher education can help boost their nation's economy (Hou, 2005). In particular, there is a great need to change the academic context of knowledge and power, and also to reshape higher education. In recent years universities in Taiwan have therefore recognized this increasing globalisation trend (ibid.). Amongst institutions of higher education in Taiwan, English was chosen as the only required foreign language to be taught in the first-year of university. For students in our higher educational system, English is considered as the highlight of international communicative foreign language learning fundamentally because English ability predetermines success in the severely competitive international trade situation. Therefore, this purpose in cultivating students' English competencies in higher education is a primary focus in our college curriculum.

In order to face such powerful and distinctive challenges, universities in Taiwan not only have to strengthen their professional teaching skills, but also they must enormously upgrade college students' English capacities during attendance at four-year colleges and universities. To do so, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan advocates reinforcing English teaching for first-year university students and improving professional curricula by having instructors lecture in English. Thus the study and use of English within Taiwan's higher educational environment has become one of the most relevant contemporary issues. For example, students receive academic credits not only in their professional subjects, but they also receive extra credits for English related classes the goal of which is to assist university students to write in English and also to present English-language academic articles all in order to enhance their sense of globalization and to upgrade their English learning (Li, 2003). Thus, it is indispensable for university students to master English communicative abilities above the basic level (Hou, 2004).

However, we doubt if the nation's educational institutions are prepared for all EFL learners in Taiwan. It is worth noting that most Taiwanese assume that Taiwan's English ability is higher than that of most other Asian countries as cited in the *China Post* (2004), one of the influential English-language newspapers published in Taiwan.

The fact however is that this generalization can be justifiably used only when comparing Taiwan's English proficiency to Japan, Thailand, and North Korea, according to the 2002 to 2003 information released by the Educational Testing System (ETS) in Taiwan, according to the China Post (2004). ETS said "the mere 27,000 people who took the test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) cannot convincingly represent all of Taiwan's people," which is cited in the China Post (2004: p.20). Furthermore, ETS added that the majority of Taiwanese with negative attitudes toward language learning consider English as only a path to success and not as something to enjoy learning. In other words, these people study English because they have to and not because they want to. Without having even a modicum of English proficiency they are afraid of not being able to enter companies nor schools of their choice. Despite these feelings, we must find a way to help these pupils to enjoy learning English, or any other language, both for reasons of personal satisfaction and pleasure (ibid.).

2.2 Learners in Taiwan's HE: Why there are so many students who have difficulty in English reading

2.2.1 Situational Teaching and Learning

As I noted earlier, English courses with emphasis on reading as part of Taiwan HE's general education are a required subject for most first-year college-level and university learners in Taiwan. English reading is the area in which most students can, under proper instruction, sharpen their skills in preparation for later real life situations. Unlike listening, speaking and writing, individual reading abilities are crucially important in that they particularly rely on individuals' abilities and hard work. The other skills in EFL class also need to be required in lesson teaching, but the levels of these skills with the individuals may be of extremely low to high levels.

Even some private universities make English compulsory for their four-year students before graduation. The majority of more than one hundred and forty schools in Taiwan's current HE, including technical/ vocational colleges and universities of science and technology, regard English as the most important subject of all foreign languages and these institutions thus try hard to promote English learning in order to compete with other island-wide educational institutes. This trend now means that many universities are hiring well-known academics from English-speaking countries while

other institutions are initiating e-learning foreign language programmes led by groups of language professionals all to enhance skilful lesson design.

However and regrettably, more and more students are failing their first semester English university courses, or are not able to complete required tasks toward the end of the school year, and many university graduates are exhibiting low-level English abilities. English lecturers and school policy makers are increasingly concerned with this issue. Many schools have reflected on what has caused these problems and thus have tried hard to find solutions to reinforcing and enhancing students' English abilities prior to graduation.

In order to enhance Taiwan's HE students' English competency, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan assigned the Language Training & Testing Center (LTTC) to establish reliable English proficiency tests for all English learners at all levels of proficiency, and we named this center the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) in 1999. This LTTC GEPT is now used as a current criterion-referenced test in Taiwan's English education. By so doing, most of Taiwan's universities and educational institutes have determined that GEPT should be the prime criterion for describing English proficiency amongst prospective graduating students.

For instance, Chen (2004), senior executive of the Higher Education Department in Taiwan's Ministry of Education stated that half of Taiwan's college and university students should be able to pass the beginning level GEPT before 2007. GEPT has thus become a gateway as a pass to employment success before college graduation. In particular, the reading and listening units at any level of the test, determine whether applicants can take further exams. There are five levels of GEPT, including Elementary, Intermediate, High-Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior level of English learners. For example, a test taker with a score of 170, at the GEPT High-intermediate level, which is equivalent to a 213 score at CBT TOEFL would pass the beginning stage of this test. In addition, no EFL learners can attempt to pass any level of the test without passing the first stage containing reading and listening skill-area components before the second stage involved in speaking and writing components. It is for this reason that reading courses are very important in the system of teaching and learning.

In June of 2005 Lin (2005) reported that there were a record high number of Taiwanese HE students who had participated in the GEPT Elementary level exam. In light of this trend, English learning in Taiwan is seen implicitly and explicitly as somewhat within the context of a 'collective fever' syndrome (ibid.).

2.2.2 Specific Problems Elucidated in This Study

To be specific, most first-year university students for whom English is not a first language tend to learn this language strictly to meet the requirements for their university curriculum. The EFL classroom is thus often full of challenges for less capable learners. Teachers are still concerned about effective methods of helping students in EFL class, especially concerning reading, which can be seen as the gateway to taking further exams in other skills. We do not really know too much about the specifics of this problem because there currently exists little research on Taiwanese university first-year learners' difficulties with college-level English reading. Therefore, we must consider the exact nature and causes of this situation.

According to observations from my experience over four years as a university lecturer, most Taiwanese college-level students obviously exhibit insufficient English reading abilities. The following difficulties seem to be pertinent reasons for these Taiwanese first-year university learners having low English skills: lack of confidence, lack of motivation, lack of texts which deal with topics of interest to students, lack of understanding by students of the purposes of reading, stress on grammar instruction, and lack of material relevant to real world situations.

2.3 Review of Current Teaching and Reading Learning Experiences of First-year University Students within Taiwan's Higher Education Framework

2.3.1 English Education within Taiwan's Higher Education System

As explained previously, after Taiwan's entry into WTO, it came to be taken for granted that not only is English education an important subject in school, but it is also a prerequisite necessary competency for the job market (Su, 2005). There are two paths for those 12th grade pupils upon graduation who hope to enter colleges and universities

after they have taken the joint college entrance examination: general universities vs. technological and vocational colleges.

The students enrolling in the former educational institutions are usually perceived as having excellent academic abilities needed to continue in higher levels of education, and my study group involved in this research interfaced with one particular team within these types of higher educational institutions. However, most of the students who perform less well in academic subjects, including English, enter the technological and vocational educational system (Su, 2005). The study group I observed came from a university with a relatively high academic reputation whose students exhibited good academic performance levels compared to other universities.

Concerning different aspects of students' attitudes towards the learning environment, Ander-Close (1999), states that Taiwanese university students exhibit feelings of competition and anxiety towards their peers and these inclinations also cause negative learning attitudes in their university English courses. In order to understand these problems, he further suggests that such difficulties might be traceable back to their secondary school learning experiences prior to enrolment in university classes (ibid.).

I postulate that these specific problems, particular those regarding school reading, are indicative of two hidden issues: the earlier learning and teaching of reading in secondary schools and the present university reading courses for first-year students in general.

2.3.1.1 The Earlier Learning and Teaching of Reading in Secondary School

Most students in Taiwan are taught in the rigid learning and teaching environment prevailing below college level where taking an exam to pass the national level college entrance exam, held only once annually, has been the only way to determine successful futures for more than four decades of Taiwan's English education students (Liao, 2005, Luo, 2005, Shen et al., 2001, Ander-Close, 1999). Not surprisingly, English teachers in secondary schools are thus under tremendous pressure regarding their students' annual national exams (Tsai, 2002, Liang, 2002, Yu, 1993). Thus these instructors rarely spend their time and efforts teaching a variety of reading skills, but instead consume much time in questions concerning test items. This learning environment exists for most

Taiwan EFL learners who constantly remain at the basic levels of English learning simply because their notion of mastering English only involves knowing how to score highly on multi-choice tests. Thus, not many pupils in secondary school enjoy English, which is a compulsory subject. Instead they aim solely to perform well on examinations.

The impact of this inflexible system thus makes it very difficult for anyone to find pupils with good reading abilities, particularly within first-year university English reading courses. I particularly noticed this situation as I identified exactly how English reading as a required subject has been taught, for over three decades, to most Taiwan EFL learners from the 7th grade to first-year college students (Shen et al., 2001). For example many students indicated that their vocabularies are so very limited, that they have to spend too much time in completing reading tasks and activities. One cause of this difficulty is that they usually experience a hard time in identifying the right word or applying the correct sentence structures while practising reading tasks in class even though they had memorized most of the items in their grammar or vocabulary books. The other reason is that many Taiwan learners exhibit fear of learning English even worse than that of learning mathematics (ibid.)

With this realization in mind I observed and collated related information concerning reading difficulties while hoping to discern possible reasons why many pupils demonstrate reading disabilities at beginning or beginning-intermediate levels. As previously mentioned this predicament exists partially because students' emphasis on English learning is too exam oriented.

Stress on Grammar Structure and Vocabulary Memorization

Most of Taiwan's junior high school teachers are still instructing their pupils by emphasizing rote memorization of vocabulary and grammar structure in the area of after-reading exercises (Zhang, 2003) while most senior school instructors retain the grammar-translation English teaching approach in which vocabulary instruction is avoided (Huang, 1997, Tai, 2003). In Taiwan, there is much more stress on the teaching and learning of grammar than global comprehension in English reading lessons (Anden-Close, 1999). Other experts (Shen et al., 2001) also show that most pupils' reading time is consumed either in consulting dictionaries to ascertain word meanings or hastening to memorize grammar as well as sentence structure. They further explain that this

phenomenon exists because most of them cannot understand the entire message of a given article even though they know all the vocabulary of the text (ibid.). Indeed, some pupils with low achievement levels still make less progress in reading even though they exert great efforts in mastering their limited vocabulary and sentence structure.

It is thus not surprising that there exists a wide range of people's attitudes with regard to grammar teaching in school. Given the evidence regarding what one might call the "over" teaching of grammar in school, Anden-Close (1999) for example considers, that this instruction method actually acts as an impediment to students learning the skill of scanning. Interestingly, because of this heavy, overwhelming grammar teaching environment in secondary schools some students in Anden-Close's study felt that there is a lack of grammar instruction at the university level thus evidencing an unfortunate lack of confidence without explicit grammar instruction in their university reading courses. Anden-Close (1999) in his research also pinpoints similar notions of Taiwanese university first-year students' attitudes toward the lack of grammar teaching in universities.

Lack of confidence

Other college instructors have noticed this situation of a dearth of English language confidence among students in Taiwan where reading in a foreign language is difficult for EFL learners. Sellers (2000) indicates that these pupils often experience frustration reading the simplest English texts. The reason for this quandary is simply because they cannot comprehend the meanings of each word of a given sentence within the entire sentence structure (Zhang, 2003). In addition, most pupils in Taiwan do not possess enough cultural or background knowledge while they are reading their texts. Thus, this insufficient cultural knowledge regarding reading content causes frustration, which leads to lack of confidence and motivation to read (ibid.).

2.3.1.2 The Present University Reading Course for the First-year Students in General

Lack of Motivation

I observed that the majority of EFL readers with low achievement status possess either low or a severe lack of motivation to learn English. Many researchers indicate that

motivation plays one of the crucial key roles in academic achievement and work productivity (Dulay and Burt, 1977; Keller, 1987). Quite a number of domestic research surveys in Taiwan have proved the positive relationship between learners' motivation and their learning achievement (Huang, 2004, Chang, 2002, Hsu, 1993).

Motivational difficulties are thus the main problem areas of this study. I suspect that there might be the kind of influence explained by Causal Attribution Theory in which some students perhaps blamed their failure on their earlier EFL learning experiences. The factors between learners' abilities and efforts within the learning contexts might also influence learners' success as suggested by similar phenomena identified in Weiner's (1992) work: "it has been shown that past failure that is ascribed by the learner to low ability hinders future achievement behaviour more than failure that is ascribed to insufficient effort" (p.118).

In order to achieve learners' success in EFL reading, Nuttall (1996) stressed that teaching reading to EFL students can be successful as long as these pupils maintain clear understandings of how they can use their reading skills in their daily life experiences. Also, learners need to possess understanding of differences amongst various cultures.

However, it seems to me that there is a lack of literature and research in Taiwan universities on how to motivate pupils by improving their comprehension of the fundamental purpose of reading, which is to understand the material at hand. Possibly, this problem occurs among pupils with lack of motivation because they are not able to understand the purposes of reading. It is also important for teachers to understand why and how to use the teaching of reading for understanding in class. By so doing, EFL teachers would meet students' specific needs and thus further enhance their motivation to learn.

Lack of the Proper Use of Reading Skills

According to my observations, some English examinations for Taiwan's EFL learners using reading skills are very limited. The reading materials above basic level lead to many EFL readers facing various difficulties concerning lack of reading strategies (Tai, 2003). Thus those pupils with low-level English proficiency as demonstrated in their first-year college English reading courses often fail at least one reading exam each

semester. In order to receive credits from their first-year English courses, which they failed, these pupils need to attend remedial reading courses before their graduation.

It is thus a matter of great concern for English instructors, in light of Taiwanese learners' difficulties in reading, to add various teaching supplements in order to cope with students with low achievement levels (Ho, 1997). However, some college instructors of other subjects are teaching in English while they are unaware that some EFL learners are experiencing difficulties in reading, and thus these teachers are not preparing supplementary reading materials for these students with problems in English reading. Thus, my actual teaching experiences keep me alert to provide my pupils with useful supplementary reading materials in addition to the textbooks.

To date, it is worth noting that there exists a huge amount of recent western studies with emphasis on “‘careful reading’ and ‘comprehension’ (however defined), and developing strategies for reading” (Anden-Close, 1999:347). However, Aebersold and Field (1997) state that there is a contemporary tendency to develop diverse reading strategies solely in North America and Britain rather than other countries. Anden-Close's (1999) research explains that teachers in Taiwan's universities assign students reading texts aloud as an essential skill because, in general, instructors in Taiwan are weak in this area. Also, in reading classes, sharpening of one's English pronunciation is seen as a valued skill for the pupils. However, other skills unfortunately are not developed, such as writing.

Indeed, many students are not taught how to use reading skills properly to help them guess about the meaning of words or to predict what they are reading. Thus these pupils are not aware of looking for ‘the theme’ or ‘supporting ideas’ of a passage before consulting their dictionaries (Shen et al., 2001). This ability is a top-down skill, which regrettably seems to be lacking amongst students in Taiwan where pupils without guidance usually gravitate to the bottom up grammar-and-dictionary oriented approach (Zhang, 2003 and Brown, 2000). For example, most Asian learners solely depend on their dictionaries while reading and this point exists because their reading habits have developed around the concept of only seeking the meaning of words/sentences while reading (Shen et al., 2001). Taiwanese students are no exception to this trend, and also tend to use their dictionaries too much.

In addition, although authentic comprehension texts for EFL classes start in Taiwan's high schools (Shen et al, 2001), in some cases certain first-year college level students only begin their English reading materials upon entering college. These pupils were usually gifted in certain subjects while senior high schools students, but perhaps weak in their English reading, and they thus did not have any English related assessments before enrolling in university. For example some engineering students I taught either were not required to attend in their high school English courses or less motivated to learn English at secondary schools, and this faced difficulties in English at university. This is why I have encountered some otherwise good pupils in my class who experienced tremendous difficulties in English reading.

In order to comprehend thoroughly how to offer proper instruction to EFL learners with low achievement levels, Ushiro (1995) suggests that language teachers need carefully to adjust appropriate lengths of reading texts before they assign them to their students. For instance, teachers assigning reading texts for less able college and university learners should thoroughly consider new information in the material and proper lengths of text in order to motivate their students. Possibly, conscious operationalization of teaching methods which emphasizes use of prediction strategy might be of great importance to these learners. In doing thus, we can also observe how pupils adapt to this strategy when teachers use it correctly and thoroughly in class (Nuttall, 1996). We must consider how some good EFL students often know how to shift from one processing model (e.g. top-down) to the other (e.g. bottom-up) by their reading tasks; whereas most EFL learners face comprehension problems because they continue using perhaps none or only one of these strategies while reading (Carrell, 1988). As indicated above, I cannot disagree with the idea of these experts (Shen et al., 2001) that these pupils' understanding in reading comprehension can be improved once students know how to apply these skills in their reading. In so doing, teaching practitioners including myself consciously need to be aware of how to instruct our students by knowing how to switch thinking processes from one area into another while reading the text.

Lack of Meaningful New Text

In order to upgrade these pupils' reading performance, one cognitive theory about language learning focuses on meaningfulness and permanence. It is important to produce meaningful new texts for learners. Ausubel (1963) suggests that reading

materials should be organized with regard to relating learners' new knowledge to the previously learned material or their previous knowledge. In addition to this idea of new information, he further explains that this approach frequently helps readers to review similar background knowledge in order to collate their learning process and to maintain retention within their thinking process (ibid.). In so doing, it is important for university instructors to inspire their pupils to seek meaning in English reading texts.

Lack of Texts with the Topics of Interest to Students

In addition, it seems to me that there is a lack of texts with topics of interest to many Taiwanese pupils in school. Amongst most 'young English learners of Taiwan,' English reading refers to building one's vocabulary and improving grammar construction as well as sentence analysis (Shen et al., 2001). It is also my experience that many university EFL learners in Taiwan complained that they spent too much time consulting their dictionaries to find the meanings of words, not to mention complicated sentences. Unknown words and complexity of sentence structure indeed slow down the reading speeds of many pupils.

Related studies indicate that these problems demonstrate slow or insufficient English reading skills (Shen et al., 2001). It is likely that there exists a correlation amongst limited vocabulary, lack of grammar, insufficient understanding of sentence structure and poor reading comprehension. In addition to many domestic research and studies in reading, Tai (2003) draws on other research to explain that new vocabulary or unfamiliar words requires strong reading comprehension amongst Taiwanese EFL learners. Thus a lack of necessary words or a large vocabulary not only discourages EFL learners, but it also (ibid.) creates tremendous difficulties in their attempts to convey meaning, thoughts, and also to communicate. In light of this problem, students will possibly lose their interests in reading without the provision of interesting topics in their textbooks or supplementary materials.

In summary, these university students mainly lack motivation and sufficient reading strategies to practice in-class reading because of the diverse difficulties I mentioned earlier in this entire section. These problems include lack of confidence and self-esteem, lack of understanding while reading for meaning, a desire to avoid responsibility due to their past experiences of failure, or having difficulties in keeping up because of difficult

sentence structures, lack of the proper use of reading skills, the lack of meaningful new texts and topics of little interest to them.

As indicated above, there is not enough research to help instructors explore more applications, particularly regarding effective teaching methods. Indeed, it is also unfortunate that the field of motivation in second language reading does not have enough systematic and sufficient professional research (Day and Bamford, 1998). Thus we should look for possible teaching methods to suit different types of local students' difficulties in motivating them to read English. Liao (2005) considers that more studies need to be done to lay a solid foundation for teaching reading methods. What follows is an introduction to an Action Research method to motivate local students with low achievement levels to enhance their reading.

2.4 Finding an Action Research Method to Motivate First-year University Students to Read

Amongst recent research on the teaching of reading, we cannot find any that measure and justify any possible effective teaching methods to improve EFL learners' motivation and hopefully to reinforce their reading skills. Anden-Close (1999) indicates the problem is that it is rare to research how people acquire reading comprehension skills. In this empirical study, I have identified possible reasons, which cause Taiwanese EFL learners' difficulties in reading English (See 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.3.1.1, 2.3.1.2). In so doing, my aim is to focus on enhancing local students' lack of motivation in general in the hope of developing useful tasks and reading materials to help these pupils to learn from their interactions with other classmates.

2.4.1 Cooperative Learning Task-Based Teaching Learning (CTBL) strategy might be a solution for Taiwanese university first-year learners with low achievement levels.

Here we might say why we think that a cooperative learning and task-based learning strategy (CTBL) might be a solution. In helping Taiwanese university first-year learners with low reading achievements, there is great concern about the learning environment and the texts themselves. Slavin (1990) suggests that cooperative learning undertaken by pupils with low ability is of great importance (cited in Spafford & Grosser, 1996). In

this environment, pupils no longer work as individuals, but form a reciprocal learning environment with other peers. Moreover, Oxford (1990) also argues for a cooperative learning approach consisting of pupils with similar learning styles in order to reach a better outcome. Pupils can benefit from this group-learning environment when they work towards the same goal. It is thus worthwhile for them to learn better and help one another during the process of cooperative learning, instead of competing against each other. Therefore, cooperative learning strategies aim to engage students in completing group tasks and developing a sense of inter-dependability among group members.

In addition, using a task-based learning and teaching (TBLT) syllabus will guide the students of this study to utilize communication techniques in order to interact with other peers. These students can make use of their target language in pair learning and group discussions; and they can work on their group tasks together and complete a task-based learning course within a cooperative learning setting under certain time constraints. These tasks for university students not only can develop their most needed efforts and obtain successful outcomes to communicate with their group members via group work, but they also enhance language learning by means of designing various kinds of task syllabi (Ellis, 2003).

In this situation, applying two pedagogies into one approach might develop students' motivation, but the detailed explanation of these theories will be provided in the following chapter. With this point in mind the following chapter will mainly focus on literature analysis of the CTBL strategy.

2.5 Research Question

As a consequence of the reflections of this chapter, the purpose of this research study is to answer the following question:

To what extent does a cooperative task-based learning approach (CTBL) with an emphasis on group work increase the motivation to develop reading skills amongst Taiwanese university students with low achievement levels?

2.6 Summary

In this chapter, we discuss Taiwan's entire context of foreign language education, particularly among higher education EFL courses, which is entering a new era in light of Taiwan's entry into WTO and followed the trend of globalization. This chapter also describes the detailed justification of the teaching of English reading in Taiwan's higher education institutes. English is seen as the most important language of all within contemporary global competitive environments. Reading courses are thus crucial in our HE educational milieu because instructors in Taiwan are weak in this area and insufficient research may hinder assistant instructors in exploring more applications, particularly regarding effective teaching methods among lower levels of university EFL learners.

Indeed, many university students are unwilling, particularly in lower level AG groups, to attend EFL university level EFL courses. This point specifically means that these pupils face increasing anxiety in class without enough actual reading practice in their real life and thus lack motivation to read foreign languages as addressed in this chapter. It is hoped that the use of reading in the language classroom not only extends our command of language, but that it also can play the central role in language learning (Nuttall, 1996). We also discuss the causes of reading problems on the basis of the limited literature from both domestic and international sources.

In addition at the end of this chapter, I provide possible solutions to changing current limited teaching methods and plans, and briefly examine the strengths of the application of the CTBL approach. The purpose of this chapter is to identify the current problems, which exist in reading courses of higher education and of how reading strategies would help students with low achievement levels to improve their motivation and success in reading. Through the intervention of proper reading method models, my goal is to improve the reading motivation of most Taiwanese first-year students with low achievement levels.

The following chapter will mainly focus on analysis of literature regarding both the strategy of CTBL and second/foreign language motivation to read.

CHAPTER 3

Literature Analysis

Part I *Towards a framework for the Planning of Teaching: CTBL (Cooperative Task-based learning) in educational contexts*

3.0 Introduction

There are two literature-analyses in this chapter: In this first section I will present some significant theories in relation to pedagogy combined with cooperative learning and task-based language teaching strategy (CTBL). Both teaching approaches have been considered as an intervention within this study, thus my purpose is not solely to review the research on CTBL. In addition, the first part of the chapter provides insights into important characteristics of individual studies and the different findings related to both teaching strategies that have been researched previously. Within this area, I discuss why CTBL is also treated as a significant pedagogy, and how it is linked to motivational theories in the second part of this chapter. Thus, the second section discusses the theories of motivation in general psychology and the specific field of second language learning motivational theories. In so doing, I will explain how the CTBL intervention might be expected to motivate students to learn a second/foreign language.

My aim here is to develop an approach applicable for teachers to practice in language classrooms and thus also to solve some thorny issues with regard to certain students who lack motivation to learn a second/foreign language. Toward the end of this chapter, I will demonstrate how this practice is related to germane significant foreign/second language learning motivational theories and as a consequence, help to develop the model of this study. My goal is to apply an enhanced model of motivation for L2 low achievers and thus to change the entire atmosphere in the traditional classroom.

3.1 What is Cooperative Learning?

The literature analyzing the cooperative approach (Jacobs, Power, & Inn, 2002) has emerged over the past hundred years in exploring cooperative learning strategy, but had not been brought to specific attention until the seventies, as cited in Liao's (2005)

conference paper. To date numerous studies conducted by researchers and teachers to investigate this approach have received tremendously positive outcomes.

This type of pedagogy could lead to difficulties for teachers if they just ask the students to work in a group without detailed orientation instruction. In addition, this lack might create negative influences on learners once pupils work solely in their own group without any appropriate direction. Therefore, we must carefully consider many factors, which might influence the outcome prior to use in the second/foreign language classroom.

3.1.1 Definition

A number of definitions of cooperative learning (CL) have existed for many decades. Amongst them, one appropriate to this study refers to: “the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each others’ learning” (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1993: 9).

It is important to note that overall, theorists and researchers of cooperative learning concern themselves with two significant central concepts, the effectiveness of members’ support and individual needs to learn as well as achievement of his or her success (McCafferty, Jacobs, & Iddings, 2006). First, the main focus is on positive interdependence related to development through the process of cooperation (ibid.). Deutsch (1949, 1962) proposes the notion that to help one in the group is to help all; to hurt one is to hurt all. That is to say, teams using the central notion of positive interdependence depend on members’ understanding of cooperation in which they can trust each other and perform, “sink or swim together” (Johnson & Johnson, 1995, p.31). Therefore, group members strengthen the sense of members’ support and cooperation once positive interdependence is created (McCafferty et al., 2006).

In addition, individual accountability is a crucial concept. Slavin (1987) refers to individual accountability saying: “The team’s success depends on the individual learning of all team members.” In so doing, CL will succeed “when the group rewards for learning are combined with individual accountability in order to ensure that participants perform their share of the work” (Dornyei, 1997:484). There will be no successful results in assigning group work if only a few individuals participate or

accomplish team goals. The value thus centres on the sharing of work amongst members: this will demonstrate members' learned skills and competency with the help of one another, not individual work.

3.1.2 Key Components of Cooperative Learning (CL)

As indicated by various research over many decades, CL has demonstrated one effective teaching approach across a diverse curriculum, particularly in the field of the second/foreign language. This method helps to meet all needs of individuals in the class at all levels with mixed gender and ethnic groups. In addition, the cooperative learning approach produces more changes compared to traditional class learning solely by teacher's instructions.

There have been a number of researchers (Gillies, 2007; Johnson and Johnson, 1999; Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1990, 1994) who have widely identified five essential components of CL with a view to forming genuine cooperation in a group. They are: 1. Positive interdependence. 2. Face-to-face promotive interaction amongst students. 3. Individual accountability for mastering the assigned material. 4. Interpersonal and small-group skills used by students. 5. Group processing.

Here I focus on reviews of the research findings in educational contexts with regard to these key components in which all related data can be analyzed and shown in Chapter 5.

3.1.3 Cooperative Learning Methods

CL represents a term, which contains a variety of methods for conducting or organizing instruction in class (Johnson, Johnson, & Stanne, 2000). Over the past three decades, modern CL has become a widely used instructional procedure practiced in educational contexts from preschool to graduate school levels with all subjects, and various educators have been attempting to apply it to all learning situations and instructional programs (ibid.). Johnson, Johnson, & Stanne's (2000) research has categorised ten modern methods of CL highlighted by teachers and researchers, as shown in Table 3.1. They detail the diverse methods which have received the most attention. Table 3.1 includes a number of recently developed programmes conducted by various

‘Researcher-developers’ who applied their creative methods in modern CL, especially in teacher-training programmes.

Table 3.1 *Modern Methods of Cooperative Learning*

Researcher-Developer	Date	Method
Johnson & Johnson	1975/1999	Learning Together and Alone
DeVries & Edwards	1974	Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT)
Sharan & Sharan	1976/1992	Group Investigation
Johnson & Johnson	1979	Constructive Controversy
Aronson & Associates(1978)	1978	Jigsaw Procedure
Slavin & Associates	1978	Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD)
Cohen	1994	Complex Instruction
Slavin, & Associates	1982	Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI)
Kagan	1985	Cooperative Learning Structures
Stevens, Slavin, & Associates	1987	Cooperative Integrated Reading & Composition (CIRC)

(Adapted from Johnson, Johnson, Stanne, 2000)

3.1.3.1 Three Main CL Methods Applied in this Study

As indicated above, modern methods of CL have become an effective learning mechanism in class with a powerful effect on students’ achievements (ibid.). To be specific, this study is focused on mixed methods of: Learning Together, Students Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) and Jigsaw procedures. Here I applied these three cooperative learning methods and integrated them together in actual practice because I found that some research (i.e. Ghaith & Kawtharani, 2006) regarded STAD as the most effective method amongst all for improving pupil’s learning objectives,

including language rule and mechanics. Jigsaw procedures and Learning Together appear more practical than the others in meeting the requirements of this particular study group. In the following, I will describe how these methods work together in the class and how they affect students' social and psychological state of learning. In light of this factor I will discuss the main methods employed in the study.

Learning Together

Based on concepts of social psychology, 'Learning Together' was developed by Johnson and Johnson at the University of Minnesota (Johnson & Johnson 1994). The key idea is focused on interdependence, which was identified by Deutsch (1949), a mentor of David and Roger Johnson, who developed Learning Together. Interdependence is described as how learners affect, and are affected by, the group situation (Deutsch, 1949). Seeking positive interdependence is thus of significance.

In addition, Learning Together is useful for a wide range of students' grade levels and school subjects. Bejarano (1987) points out that topic discussion or problem-solving learning tasks are commonly used in the Learning Together Method because it requires manifold communications, negotiations, and interactions through group work. Such group assignments are divided into small tasks for members with each individual contributing his or her own share to fulfil the team work as a whole. During this process of working towards the same goal, members cannot complete their mutual tasks without group interdependence towards the same objective, and they thus create positive task interdependence through group work. Therefore, many researchers consider Learning Together as an effective way to help students develop effective and social skills, as well as enhancing learners' academic abilities (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1994, Chiu, 2002).

Unlike STAD, one of the important factors in Learning Together is improving group functioning. Allport (1954), a social psychologist, claims that members solely coming into contact with one another in a group will not necessarily result in goodwill but will however share a common goal. Moreover, Johnson and Johnson (1985) suggest giving grades to award group performances. Therefore, promoting members' efforts to achieve, and enhancing group goals, as well as individual accountability are essential to achieving cooperative learning (Slavin, 1988, 1991, 1996). Slavin further states that a

reward system can induce students to help others in the group in order to achieve the maximum of individual learning within the team. Individual learning of all group members is the key to determining the success of the group (Chiu, 2002).

Students Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD)

The Students Teams-Achievement Divisions Method (STAD) is also utilized in this study and serves as a key to increasing student motivation (see the results of the research data analysis shown in Chapter 6). Slavin and his associates originally developed STAD (1978). In 1995, he further indicated that the main idea of STAD is to motivate students to develop readiness and sharpen skills by encouraging and helping one another while practicing their learning materials through group work. Five steps ought to be followed while utilizing STAD in small groups (Slavin, 1995). They are: 1. Forming small heterogeneous groups; 2. Presenting teaching and learning materials; 3. Practicing in small groups; 4. Providing individual quizzes; 5. Computing individuals' scores and rewarding the winning team. However, my study group included many low-level L2 learners and I thus decided that step five was not appropriate in this particular class session.

On the other hand, with a view to working together, STAD team members will contribute their own scores because they are assigned learning materials in preparation for a quiz after the teacher's lecture. Through the learning process, students studied the materials provided by the instructor, and the grade of the individual depended on his/her own score in the quiz. In addition, this approach helps the group to earn a higher score once an individual makes some progress in their quiz compared to their previous grade. The group's score is based on team members with the best score each time compared to their average quiz results in the past. Without doing well on the quiz like other higher achievers in the group, low achievers can attain an individual score as good as other higher team achievers. Therefore, receiving group rewards depends on the total score of the performance of the entire team.

Slavin (1987) believes that two types of motivation are derived from the socio-psychological aspect of STAD: intrinsic and extrinsic motivations between which there exists a close relationship. Regardless of the consequence of intrinsic motivation, Slavin (1987) considers extrinsic motivation as an indispensable position affected by internal

incentives of the individual. He views cooperative learning as a more efficient way to release extrinsic motivation as well as a realistic way to help an individual develop intrinsic interest and inner motivation.

Slavin (1987) also indicates that members need to feel the experience of group cohesion and not solely to achieve team or personal goals. In light of this point, group interaction must be the focus of cooperative learning. Therefore, I strongly agree with the conclusion of Slavin (1987), “Cooperative learning represents an odd but happy marriage between behavioural and humanistic approaches to classroom motivation” (p. 35).

Jigsaw procedures

As cited in Slavin (1995) Aronson and his associates originally designed Jigsaw in 1978. I applied this method because I find it helpful to inducing students’ creative thinking and developing their problem-solving skills. This method is entirely focused on interdependence while locating learners working together in groups (Kagan 1985). The Jigsaw method comprises two different approaches utilized in a variety of situations in educational contexts.

Jigsaw I

In the original Jigsaw method, each student is provided with only part of the materials of an academic unit but is evaluated on how well he or she masters the whole unit. In Jigsaw I, students in a group of up to six members work through their learning materials. Each member in a small group is assigned to one section of the academic materials from a unit. To be specific, each member of a learning team works solely on a subtask of a Jigsaw puzzle, and his or her mission is to become an expert in that subtask. After studying his or her subtask, each member starts tutoring that subtask to other team members, and others obtain the information from each individual expert of the group (Aronson, 1978). The elements of the original Jigsaw include specially designed curriculum materials, team building and communication training, group leaders, expert groups, as well as individual assessment and reward activities (Kagan, 1985, p. 70).

Jigsaw II

Adapted from the original Jigsaw, the Jigsaw II method utilizes existing materials of the curriculum, and brings some specific features of STAD into the method (Slavin, 1980). Thus, it is very different from the original Jigsaw. For example, students are assigned to a group as utilized in STAD. Individuals should read the entire unit and meanwhile are assigned to teams to become experts in the various topics. With a view to focusing on their expected subjects, learners in expert groups learn to discuss and sharpen their skills within the topic. Then, they return to their original team and report to it. Each individual would have a quiz in order to contribute to his or her group and finally obtain recognition from the team. In light of this specific way to contribute to an individual's group, Jigsaw II is quite different from Jigsaw I in several significant ways (Kagan, 1985).

What is more, these three combined cooperative learning methods provide equal opportunities for members to achieve success. Even low achievers of the group would find the Jigsaw method helpful to motivate them to achieve success for the group in the learning situation. Individuals would experience unfamiliar roles compared to a traditional class setting (Kagan 1985). In particular, learners in a cooperative learning environment would gain many opportunities to take turns, each time playing different roles in a group, such as presenters, tutors, timers and thus not acting as a passive role in a traditional classroom (ibid.). In so doing, it is useful for them to have the experience of handling a variety of roles in class in order to prepare them for the real world (ibid.).

3.2 Utilising a CL Method in a Foreign Language Classroom

For the last decade, some domestic research literature (Chiu, 2002; Tai, 2003; Tsai, 2002) in Taiwan has focused on CL and teaching methods. They have demonstrated their effectiveness in promoting language learning abilities and developing learners' social behaviours as well as inner growth (Liang, 2002). A number of positive results have shown concomitant positive reinforcement within cooperative learning, second language acquisition and second language teaching (ibid.). In particular, the field of language teaching and learning has recommended that teachers widely utilize cooperative learning techniques, although, while it focuses on greatly promoting student motivation, it does not answer all the problems in class (ibid.). Indeed, CL activities

under language teachers' instruction provide a number of practical opportunities for students to practice frequently the target language in small groups. CL also helps to develop student-student and student teacher relationships in a language classroom.

This approach aims to create two positive results in the second language classroom. One goal is to increase student motivation in a cooperative learning group; the other is to enhance group cohesion and efficacy in team work. The following material provides the theoretical concept, supported by substantial results derived from it.

3.2.1 Increasing Students' Motivation in a CL Group

As indicated above, we attempted to investigate whether students' motivation in a CL group can be enhanced in a foreign language class. Indeed, cooperative learning in educational contexts is of great importance to motivational systems (Dornyei, 1997, 2001). Several studies have shown that there is a causal link between a variety of learners' motives and the CL situation provided in class (Gillies, 2007; Johnson and Johnson, 2003; Dornyei, 1997; Slavin, 1996). These studies have shown enough evidence that different types of students have been greatly influenced by CL, and thus they generate higher levels of motivation while working in a group than when working as individuals (Dornyei, 2001, 1997). With a view to achieving a common objective, team members identify themselves as part of the group, and learn to share accountability for the desired outcome and equal benefits (Dornyei, 2001 and 1997; Johnson, Johnson, 1987 and 1975).

Indeed, L2 students in a CL group can greatly increase enthusiasm and motivation compared to a traditional educational context. Within that, L2 learners in a small group strive to achieve success because they consider winning as being socially beneficial, as well as the achievement of a goal. Dornyei (2001) indicates that, "Group motivation concerns the unique motivational setup of organizing classroom instruction in order to achieve common learning goals via cooperation" (p. 40). I cannot disagree with this notion. Johnson and Johnson (2003) addressed another similar concept that "positive interdependence" derived from group learning goals leads to interaction amongst team members.

Furthermore, a CL situation tends to help students develop higher academic achievements through group work (Liang, 2002) rather than in a competitive or self-learning environment. Huang (1990) also emphasizes that learners with high motivation tend to achieve better English proficiency. Indeed, motivation and academic achievement are so related to each other that many language teachers consider CL teaching methods as an effective instructional approach in class.

As discussed above, once students gain greater cooperative learning attitudes within a second language-learning environment, they would view themselves as being motivated. Johnson and Johnson (1987) indicate that: “Motivation is most commonly viewed as a combination of the perceived likelihood of success and the perceived incentive for success” (p.32). Needless to say, it is important for learners to understand how and why they want to make efforts and have a desire to learn. Therefore, these experts (Johnson and Johnson) further explain that success is defined as individuals with a willingness to learn thus referring more to intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards.

3.2.2 Enhancing Group Cohesion and Efficacy through Group Work

The conclusions of Dornyei’s (1994) theory of L2 motivation on a given group is crucial to finding a set of group-specific emotional components, including group cohesion as well as classroom goal structures. He proposes a significant idea for enhancing group cohesion while working with L2 learners in a team. Group cohesion used to be defined as “the strength of the relationship linking the members to one another and to the group itself” (Forsyth, 1990:10). Dornyei and Malderez (1997) also consider that members generate a sense of belonging and identify themselves with their group once they develop the necessary cohesion. Thus, group unity plays a significant role for team members and the group itself.

How can members experience cohesion within the group? Dornyei and Malderez (1997) indicate that there are four key factors that influence the sense of unity: First, time spent together and working as a group are the key components. In addition, positive interrelationships amongst group members can also reinforce the sense of team cohesion. Furthermore, group rewards can be another key factor in strengthening cohesion (Levine and Moreland, 1990). For example, members may experience fun from the activities, commitment to the goals, goal achievement and individual rewards (ibid.).

The last factor is viewed as how different individuals within the group interact with one another (Dornyei and Malderez, 1997).

Interestingly, Dornyei (1994) uses the term group cohesion concept differently from the group interdependence suggested by Johnson et al. (1993), but the central meaning of both terms focuses on enhancing learners' cooperation through group work (Dornyei, 1997). Indeed, Jacobs and McCafferty (2006:28) urge: "Dornyei made a clear link between his theory of L2 motivation and the work in social psychology on groups as found in the general education literature" (For example, Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

Furthermore, there are similarities between Dornyei's L2 motivational theory and the concept of cooperative learning with regard to fostering group cohesion, according to Jacobs & McCafferty (2006). To be specific, both theories, L2 motivation psychology and cooperative learning, discuss how to build team work with a view to achieving team success, and also to improving how well the members can cooperate with one another.

First, Dornyei considers it necessary for members to get acquainted and form a trusting relationship with one another. That is to say, team-building activities can be achieved once strong group relations form (Kagan, 1995). Second, Dornyei, like Chamot and O'Malley (1994), points out that the operation of the group might make progress once teams regularly spend time discussing how well they can work together. Indeed, Johnson et al. (1993) view processing group interaction as one of five key factors of cooperative learning.

Johnson and Johnson (1979) state that CL aims to promote coherence by structuring learning groups to work towards the same goals. In so doing, members of the groups strive to help each other with a view to achieving success. In light of this technique, it is helpful for learners to explain how well they can work with others towards the same goal. Furthermore, group cohesion is a positive factor in determining L2 learners' motivation (Clement et al., 1994). That is to say, members in a cohesive group actively take part in language practice or become involved in self-disclosure dialogues more than other non-cohesive teams (Levine and Moreland, 1990). Therefore, group cohesion is considered to have a significant effect on language teaching.

Once members possess a sense of group cohesion, they can join their team efforts together. Group efficacy is defined as: "The expectation of successfully obtaining

valued outcomes through the joint efforts of the group members” (Johnson and Johnson, 1987:246). In cooperative learning, a joint effort involves the contribution of an individual as well as other team members (ibid.). With a view to achieving the group’s goal, members have more confidence in a team effort and expect to succeed (ibid.). Johnson and Johnson (1987) conclude: “The greater the sense of self-and joint-efficacy promoted by group processing, the more productive and effective group members and the group as a whole become” (p.246). These two essential concepts, group efficacy and group cohesion, will be enhanced through positive group work

3.2.3 The Roles of the Teacher and Students

In general, a teacher plays a supporting role in a cooperative learning setting, and endeavours to provide clear instruction in order to alleviate students’ doubts (Knight & Bohlmeier, 1990). He or she also appropriately rewards groups for an excellent group presentation in front of class (ibid.). Both the teacher and students strive to adjust their roles and struggle to achieve balance in a reciprocal relationship while they share their responsibilities for working together in a lesson. According to Ryder & Graves (1996) cited in Spafford & Grosser (1996:245), “Cooperative learning skills are not easily taught by teachers nor are the skills presented easily mastered by students.” That is to say, the teacher needs time to adjust his/her role to assist students in a cooperative learning setting; on the other hand, students are required to learn quickly how to cooperate with one another in order to meet the needs of their group.

What is more, Lazarowitz & Karsenty (1990) emphasize that cooperative learning in such an educational context will receive greater attention and influence the relationship between students and teachers in the learning process. In addition, they also indicate that student motivation and attitudes can reinforce the relationship between the teacher and learners in such a social surrounding. Indeed, the cooperative learning group can benefit from the strength of teamwork and enhance the relationships between students and the teacher in class.

3.2.4 CL and the Learners

Based on much research in CL, one suggestion advocates that teachers ought to consider how to place students together in groups. It is important to note that there are

many factors to consider when placing students together. They include mixed ethnicity and gender (to share different perspectives and break down barriers), language ability (to enhance peer tutoring), the mother tongue (to encourage second language use), and on-task behaviour (to provide positive models) (Jacobs, 2006). This also will be shown again in the methodology in chapter 4 in that it will explain how the teacher forms the groups while implementing the method.

3.2.5 Low Achievers within a CL Setting

Previous research has shown that high, average, and low achievers would equally benefit through CL (Slavin, 1985). Slavin (1985:11) further states: "...a few have shown greater gains for low achievers; and others have shown the greatest gains for high achievers." In this study, I suspect that low-achieving university students would benefit from group work in a cooperative learning environment.

In addition, Slavin (1990) argues that CL undertaken by students with disabilities is of great importance (cited in Spafford & Grosser, 1996). In such an environment, students no longer work as individuals, but have a reciprocally helpful relationship to one another in class. Many studies recommend that lower achievers can receive attention and help through group work (Johnson et al. 1991). To be specific, low achievers in heterogeneous groups can benefit from their classmates as well as from their teacher (Jacobs, 2006). Furthermore, Johnson & Johnson (1987) indicate that: "low-achieving students tend to achieve more when they are members of heterogeneous CL groups" (p.32). With a view to fostering their higher achievement, encouragement from other classmates will increase their desire to achieve more. In so doing, those who attain higher achievement levels can greatly affect their sense of self-esteem along with their achievement motivation (ibid.) once they receive more attention from the CL group.

Conversely, the high achievers can develop a cooperative environment to work successfully together with low achievers, and form a win-win situation. Generally speaking, the learning tasks in a group can motivate low achievers to accept a challenge and try to achieve a goal (Jacobs, 2006). If low achievers fail, their entire group will have the same experience of failure because they work as a team (ibid.). Furthermore, learners in CL situation will have a desire to learn more by means of others' encouragement as well as feeling individual interdependence. In so doing, there is no

chance for team members to do nothing; all need to work together towards the same objective (ibid.). However, it is important to note, “if the high achievers always do the helping, and the low achievers always receive the help, status issues may arise that might hamper group effectiveness” (Jacobs, 2006:33).

In short, as a consequence of this analysis of the literature, we believe that low achievers in such a CL setting might be motivated in their desire to learn more with the help of other members through their hard work and cooperation in a group.

3.3 Task-based learning and teaching (TBLT)

3.3.1 Background Review

For more than two decades, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach has highlighted learners' communicative abilities. Since CLT became prevalent, task-based language teaching (TBLT) has become widespread and focused on process-syllabi designing communicative tasks to enable learners to use the target language and practice the real-world situation task in practice (Jeno & Hahn, 2006).

A different perspective distinguishes the approaches of language teaching between CLT and TBLT. The CLT approach is derived from psychology, anthropology and linguistics, and represents a global thinking method to teaching language curriculum (Nunan, 2004; Savignon, 1993). Other designs for language curriculum derived from the CLT approach include content-based learning, text-based syllabi, problem-based learning, and immersion education (Nunan, 2004). However, TBLT demonstrates a philosophical reality in providing an opportunity for teaching methods and syllabus designs (ibid.). In particular, there are three main perspectives of TBLT on language teaching: Second Language Acquisition, Communicative Language Teaching, and Process syllabus (Li, 2004). Some of its supporters (e.g.. Willis, 1996) consider TBLT as a positive result of CLT because they both share similar standards and have helped to promote the CLT approach since the 80s (Richard and Rodgers, 2001).

Particularly after the 1980s, courses designed on TBLT have received great attention and become known as a ‘task-based’ approach (Williams and Burden, 1997). To be specific, based on the notion of task-based method, TBLT represents “an approach to syllabus design which takes the task as its basic unit” (ibid. p.168).

Similarly, according to another perspective of TBLT defined by Richards & Rodgers (2001: 223), “Task-based language teaching (TBLT) refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching.” In addition, these researchers summarize that TBLT aims to foster the central concept of “task” in the teaching and planning of the language curriculum (ibid.). Basing the process of learning on how students learn an additional language rather than on teaching a selected language skill or knowledge, the type of TBLT syllabus comprises a series of tasks, in which learners ought to be involved with the meaningful use of the target language for carrying out the tasks and thus acquiring the language (ibid.). In light of this notion, TBLT is seen as at the heart of the curriculum approach in language teaching.

It is worth noting that two earlier essential pioneers of TBLT have explored and shown different versions of a task-based syllabus: Prabhu and Sinclair. Both developed two early applications of it. Sinclair’s lies in the Malaysian Communicational Syllabus (1975) while Prabhu and his associates’ approach is the Bangalore Project in South India (Willis and Willis, 2007; Beretta 1990; Prabhu 1987; Beretta and Davies 1985). However, the applicable period of time for both projects was relatively short (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

3.3.2 Why is TBLT an applicable Second Language Teaching approach?

According to Long & Norris (2000), review studies related to TBLT have been developed for more than two decades. To date, a growing number of language teachers are willing to implement a task-based teaching approach when they see a variety of teaching materials in the market. There are many reasons for applying the methodology of TBLT to language teaching. First, TBLT is derived from the knowledge of communicative language teaching along with an organised focus on language form applied to any target, second or foreign language (Willis, 1996). Second, using tasks in teaching English as a second/foreign language class closely combines with developments in the study of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2003). Third, many findings have shown the benefits of applying TBLT, not only in the field of general education (Swaffer et al., 1982), but also in second language acquisition (Rooney, 1998; Long & Crookes, 1993) because the task syllabus provides learners with many

successful opportunities to attain L2 compared to other different types of syllabus (Long & Crookes, 1993).

Since the late sixties and seventies, many researchers have begun to observe how foreign language learners attain L2 and have kept a variety of records to demonstrate how learners acquire the order and sequence of language grammar (Dulay & Burt 1973; HaKuta 1976; Cancino et al. 1978). That is to say, students are required to use what they acquired through their individual lessons to give meaning to their real-world knowledge and experience, which is based on written or spoken texts or tasks (Willis, 1996).

Indeed, the TBLT approach has made great use of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory (Bygate et. al., 2001; Willis, 1996; Prabu, 1987). One of its main factors in TBLT contains tasks, which is seen as functioning as the class unit not only to plan and teach in the classroom but also to apply as tools in SLA studies (Li, 2004). This helps teachers and researchers promote TBLT because it provides many opportunities for the learners to experiment with, and to explore, spoken and written language through classroom activities. Tasks play roles not only as research instruments for second/foreign language learners, but can also be seen as language forms that have been investigated (Ellis, 2003). This point is identified in terms of target tasks for language learners involved in target dialogue (e.g. the real-world things people do in daily lives) cited in Long (2000). For example, EFL pupils are engaged in their target tasks related to how to ask for bus station directions when exploring a foreign country (ibid.). In light of this fact, TBLT is viewed as an effective learning and teaching methodology and solution, in fostering the majority learners practicing their tasks based on real world situations in EFL class.

Moreover, TBLT tends to focus on meaning, and controlling the rate of development and incompleteness where grammatical accuracy is concerned, by means of 'focus on form' (Long, 2000). Here, 'focus on form' refers to changing students' focus of language learning methods in a meaning-oriented lesson by implementing pedagogic procedures (ibid.). This change on increasing students' grammar in the foreign language develops because teachers are concerned with pupils' comprehension problems when pupils are involved in classroom tasks (ibid.). Thus, it is not only beneficial for students to learn the foreign language and further promote their acquisition, but it also helps

teachers to be aware of such pedagogy to assist their students developing the learned language.

Conversely, there are different views of the effectiveness of the TBLT approach toward language teaching. In particular, Ellis (1995) believes in the ‘interaction hypothesis’, which supports the notion that interactional modification creates comprehensible input while enhancing language acquisition. In the end, interactional modification would be seen to enhance acquisition. However, not everyone accepts this hypothesis due to a lack of supporting evidence. Moreover, Seedhouse argues that interaction resulting from performing task-based activities alone within the classroom is too confined and tight because students solely focus on accomplishing the tasks. In addition, there is no strong evidence to verify that the task-based interaction is superior to other different types of communicative classroom approaches (Seedhouse, 1999).

3.3.3 The Features and Principles of TBLT

Despite multiple explanations and interpretations of TBLT applicable in the classroom, there are three recurrent features based on the integration of recent studies and research according to Jeno & Hahn (2006) as follows:

1. There is an educational belief that TBLT approach is compatible with the learner-centred techniques (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2005; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).
2. There are several key components of TBLT, including goal, procedure and specific outcome (Murphy, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Skehan, 1998).
3. They focus on content-oriented meaningful forms rather than on linguistic forms (Beglar & Hunt, 2002; Carless, 2002; Littlewood, 2004).

Apart from these factors indicated above, Skehan’s (2003) principles of task-based instruction provide three similar suggestions: 1) determining the tasks which meet the utility standards; 2) selecting a series of tasks in order to succeed in a pedagogic planning and 3) motivating learners to complete individual accountability. All three characteristics are covered in the syllabus design of the TBLT course (cited in Solares, 2006).

It is worth noting Nunan's (2004) description of a series of principles underlying the instructional sequence. Its effect has a great impact which language teachers should bear in mind. The following is a list of featured principles suggested by Nunan on his Website work in 2004, as shown in Table 3.2:

Table 3.2 *Nunan's suggestion of Principles for TBLT*

8 Principles	Description
1. Scaffolding	Lessons and materials should provide supporting frameworks within which the learning takes place. At the beginning of the learning process, learners should not be expected to produce language that has not been explicitly taught.
2. Task Dependency	Within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon the ones that have gone before.
3. Recycling	Recycling language maximizes opportunities for learning and activates the 'organic' learning principle.
4. Active Learning	Learners acquire the language by actively using it.
5. Integration	Learners are taught in ways that make clear the relationships between grammatical form, communicative functions, and semantic meanings.
6. Reproduction to creation	In reproductive tasks, learners reproduce language models provided by the teacher, the textbook or the CD. These tasks are designed to give learners mastery of form, meaning and function, and provide a basis for creative tasks. In creative tasks, learners are recombining familiar elements in novel ways.
7. Learning Strategies	Learners focus on the learning process as well as language content.
8. Reflection	Learners should be given opportunities to reflect on what they have learned and how well they are doing.

These principles mentioned above constitute a summary suggested by several TBLT advocates and experts, such as Nunan and Skehan, which language instructors and teachers should review regularly in order to run TBLT in task settings.

3.3.4 What is a Task?

A number of TBLT experts (i.e. Willis & Willis, 2007; Nunan, 2004; Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001) address diverse definitions of task for different purposes and the need for a generalized definition, as shown in table 3.3.

Table 3.3 *Key Definitions of 'Tasks' in TBLT*

TBLT Researcher	Date	Definition of Task
Ellis	2003	A task is a work-plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect to the way language is used in the real world (p.16).
Richards & Rodgers	2001	A task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy (p. 224).
Skehan	1998	A task is an activity in which <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Meaning is primary ➤ Learners are not given other people's meanings to regurgitate. ➤ There is some sort of relationship to comparable

		<p>real-world activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Task completion has some sort of priority ➤ The assessment of the task is in terms of outcome.
Willis	1996	Tasks are always activities where the learner uses the target language for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome (p.23).
Nunan	1989	A piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form (p.10).
Breen	1987	... any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work-plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning - from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or stimulations and decision-making (p.23).
Richards, Platt and Weber	1986	... an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response.). For example, drawing while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command may be referred to as tasks...The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative ... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake (p.289).
Long	1985	A piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward... In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between (p.89).

From the above table, it seems that the most inclusive of all definitions is the one offered by Long (1985) in the context of ‘real world’ tasks. His approach in 1985 to task-based language teaching is focused on target tasks. It refers to “use of language in the world beyond the classroom; pedagogical tasks are those that occur in the classroom” (p.1).

In order to adapt the activity in the class setting, the task needs to be a pedagogical one which is used in the class, but not all definitions directly link the real-world task to the classroom task. Concerning this aspect of tasks related to the real-life activities, Richards et al. (1986) and Breen (1987) emphasize the definitions from the aspect of pedagogical undertakings. To be specific, Richards et al. (1986) proposes the definition of a pedagogical task as being close to a pedagogical perspective. Nunan on his work in 2004 is close to the definition of a pedagogical task, which refers to the evidence of what students can do in the classroom, instead of outside of this environment. Apart from Richards et al. (1986), Breen (1987) also takes a teaching perspective to define a pedagogical task. However, Breen’s definition of a task seems very extensive and it includes almost anything students ought to do in the classroom. It is possible for the teacher to justify all the procedures of a TBLT approach. In this case, it is not effective nor helpful to the learners and the teacher.

Despite these different definitions, there remains a common characteristic: those tasks are involved in communicative language (Nunan, 1986). Nunan further suggests that students making efforts involving the tasks results in developing comprehension, making progress in the language, and focusing on meaning through interaction with the target language (ibid). Furthermore, Nunan in his work in 1989 clarifies a division of tasks into two types. One is to highlight students’ attention on the language form and the structure of the language that provides meanings in it. The other is to inspire students’ motivation to achieve the objectives of the tasks focused on the complexity of the language forms (ibid.). In addition, he considers pedagogical tasks as two subtasks of a rehearsal rationale and a pedagogical rationale. Both subtasks are seen as real-world tasks like communicative acts that students use to carry out their achievements through language in the real world, not in the class (ibid.).

In addition to Nunan's points, Willis (1996) also believes that a task results in a specific outcome in a classroom. Here, she echoes a similar notion that L2 learners use the target language in a communicative task and its aim is to receive an outcome through the meaning exchange (ibid.). Therefore, the central notion of meaning is to achieve the 'outcome.' Skehan on his work in 1998 also highlights a similar few basic elements of a task as defined by Willis (1996). These elements suggested by Skehan (1998) include that meaning is primarily focused, a goal to be achieved, an outcome of activity to be evaluated, and a real-world activity related to the class task, etc.

As indicated above, despite the multiplicity of explanations and interpretations of 'tasks' from a number of theorists and researchers, all the definitions of 'tasks' are seen as requiring a purpose of communication (goal), leading to an effective outcome (i.e. using the target language), meaning focus, encouraging learners' engaging and thinking, and practice in real-world class activities (See figure 3.1).

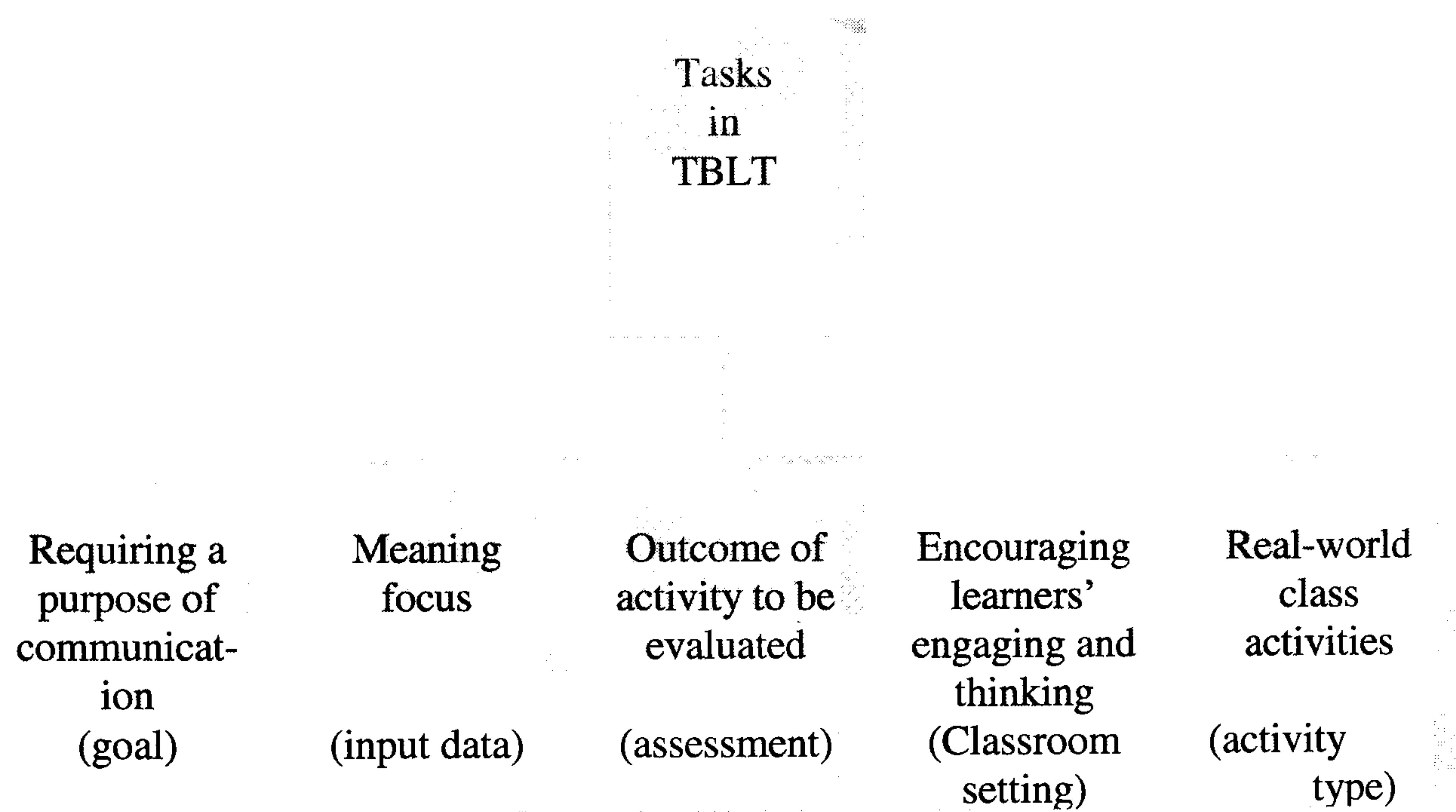


Figure 3.1 *The General Key Elements of 'Tasks' in TBLT*

3.3.5 Framework for TBLT

A. Establishing a pedagogical framework for TBLT in L2 course design

With a view to the task creating constant learning and improvement, the TBLT framework initially invented by Willis on her work in 1996, as shown in appendix 3, included three phases: the pre-task, the task-cycle, and the post-task. A Framework of

TBLT lessons on this study was based upon this practical framework in Willis's work. Students would practice these communicative task-based activities within three-phase cycles as follows:

Table 3.4 *The Framework Description of a Task-based Lesson on Willis's work in 1996*

Three Phases	Description
Pre-task Preparation	There are two functions: one lies in introducing and motivating students' interests to do a task with a selected topic; the other is to help students to use useful words, phrases and sentences and practice in a real-world learning situation by the use of vocabulary activities related to the theme.
Task-cycle (Task Performance)	It assists students to organize the plan and present their spoken and written reports on the task. It attempts to provide more opportunities for students achieving goals.
Post-task (Language Focus)	It focuses on the use of language and the learners are allowed to carry out form-focused work as well as form-focused instruction for the teacher. The teacher draws forth vocabulary or linguistic form while students are working their tasks. In so doing, it enables students to learn how to examine practical words or phrases in their learning materials.

To be specific, linguistic forms are reviewed at the post-task stage of a lesson, which differs from the teaching methods of traditional grammar or functional teaching lessons (Li, 2004). Willis (1996) suggests that extra language focused follow-up activities would help students examine some linguistic features in texts. By so doing, it would reinforce learners' language abilities when encountering difficult words or grammar problems (ibid.). In addition, the language exercise at the post-task phase is practical for teachers to evaluate how students perform in order to achieve their task.

Another TBLT framework proposed by Nunan (2004, see below figure 3.3.5), is a good way to meet students' needs by integrating real use in language while communicating to

others with different kinds of narrative descriptions and instructions (Halliday, 1985). Also, Nunan (1986) suggests that the “systemic framework provides a social perspective on interaction, and a number of researchers are now beginning to incorporate insights from systemical factors into their work on tasks” (p. 65). However, because students in Taiwan’s HE language classes recognize teachers’ instruction within a structural syllabus, they often feel less confidence while performing the task in class because they are too concerned with their accuracy of grammar. In light of this point, Nunan’s framework would be less beneficial for students to perform English effectively because the teacher seems to act as a language mediator while students are acting and performing a task with limited language proficiency.

On the other hand, Willis’s initial framework in 1996 is likely to motivate students to practice their target language by using real-world activities during the learning process. Following the three-phase stage proposed by Willis (1996), incapable language learners would find themselves reporting before class more confidently than in the other framework proposed by Nunan. More importantly, the framework for TBLT suggested by Willis indeed can motivate learners to fluency tasks before they become concerned with accuracy. It indeed stimulates students to notice forms in order to correct their linguistic errors at the final stage, after they achieve their fluency tasks. In light of this, it helps individuals develop language learning from fluency to accuracy.

Macrofunctions → Microfunctions → Real-world / target tasks

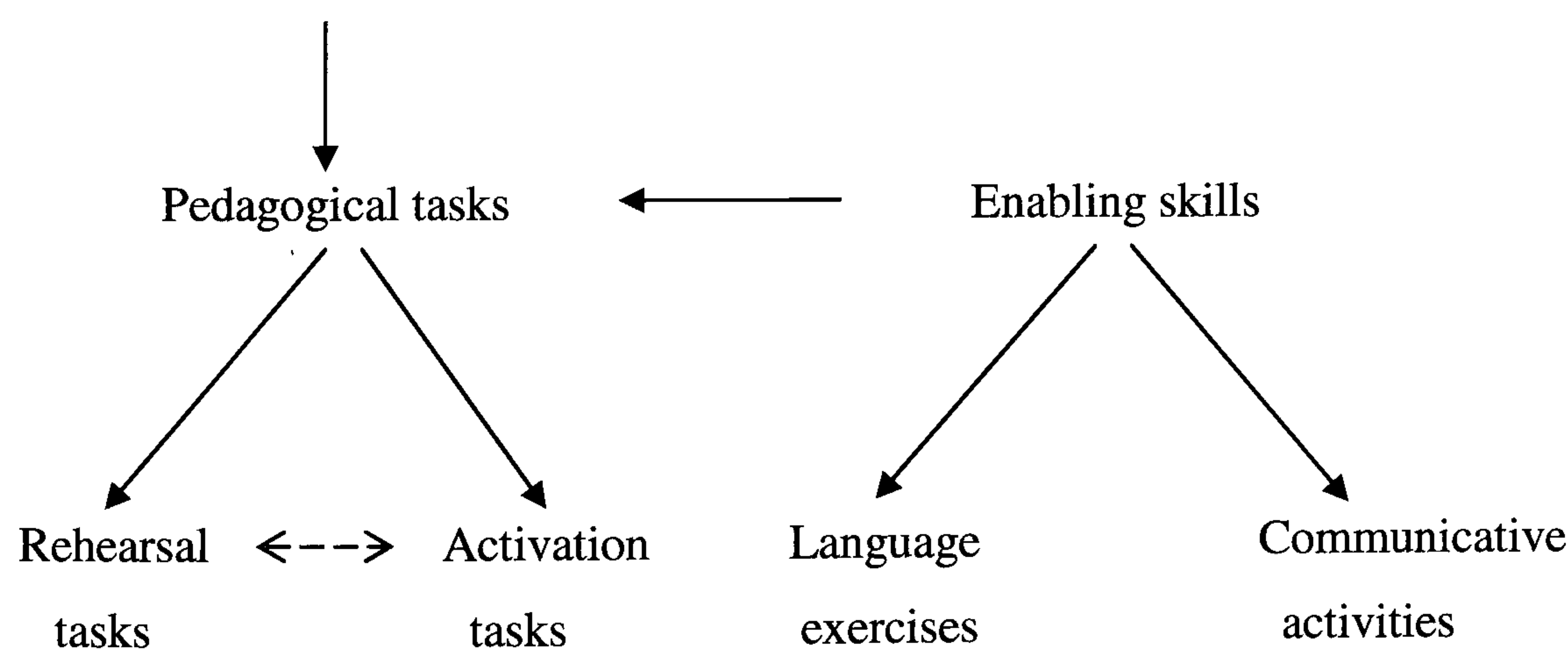


Figure 3.2 *The Framework for TBLT proposed by Nunan in 2004*
(Adapted from Nunan’s (2004) Task-Based Language Teaching)

B. Providing opportunities for learners to Practice the Target Language

The TBLT framework provides students greater opportunities for a good use of the target language to interact with a pair practice (Willis, 1996). That is to say, students in such a TBLT learning environment easily obtain many opportunities to practice language by communicating in pairs. In addition, students would gain more confidence from the peer support at the planning stage before the stage of report. Later on, they would have many opportunities to report what they had planned and would like to say at the report phase (Willis, 1996). The objective of a task-based learning framework is to gain opportunities for learners to experiment with the language itself (ibid.). In light of this point, students are asked to perform their tasks, and that helps give them exposure in practicing the language freely in the process of performing tasks, as opposed to being asked to follow specific forms or patterns.

3.3.6 Task Components to Implement TBLT Successfully within This Thesis

We can now see that tasks with various interpretations represent different aspects of notions of ‘task’. I cannot disagree with the concept proposed by Candlin and Murphy on their work in 1987. They propose that ‘Tasks’ which are effective embrace a list of key systematic components, such as input, goals, classroom settings, roles, activities, and feedback. More importantly, TBLT is focused on a learner-centred concept within educational philosophy (Nunan, 2005, Ellis, 2003, Richards & Rodgers, 2001). From the differing viewpoints above, the framework of task components I use in this thesis is based upon the teacher’s designing task-based activities and her syllabus design. The key elements are (1) Comprehensible input (meaningful content); (2) Practice in real-world activities (procedure); (3) The purpose of communication (goal); (4) The use of the target language (specific outcome); and (5) Providing opportunities for learners’ engaging and thinking to notice forms (feedback). We can also observe all tasks/activities in this study whether they can fit into these key components and will be present in the finding in chapter 5.

3.3.7 Roles of Teachers and Learners

In a TBLT class, the relationship between the teacher and learners is like two sides of a coin (Nunan, 2004). The teacher needs to encourage learners to take the initiative in becoming active in the classroom (ibid.).

In the communicative task setting, the teacher has three roles: the facilitator, the participant, and the observer (Breen and Candlin, 1980). A similar notion addressed by Richards, and Rodgers (2001), advocates that the teacher functions in three roles, which include those of a linguistic adviser, a facilitator, and a selector. More importantly, the teacher ought to give clear instructions as well as make appropriate use of the target language (Nunan, 2004). To avoid a conflict situation, the teacher might strive to balance her or his role as a facilitator, not a leader (*ibid.*). Furthermore, the teacher ought to give feedback, providing appropriate advice as well as making a conclusion with a linkage of all learned materials (Li, 2004; Richards, and Rodgers, 2001; Willis, 1996).

On the other hand, Richards & Rodgers (2001) suggest many different roles for students and assume that some roles act the same as the roles in the communicative language class; other roles concentrate on completion of their learning tasks in class. There are three main roles for the learners while the teacher is practicing TBLT in a foreign language class: group participants (Willis, 1996), monitors (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) and risk-takers as well as innovators (*ibid.*). Learners have to participate in the task and strive to create and interpret their findings in doing tasks. In so doing, they can develop a number of skills in the classroom, which they need to participate in the tasks and strive to seek the solution in doing tasks (*ibid.*).

3.3.8 Low achievers and TBLT

Many teachers find it difficult to engage low achieving students in the classroom, particularly in encouraging them to speak in the target language. At the analysis stage of a TBLT classroom, low-level learners will be specially treated by the teacher to involve them in discussions or talked to in their first language (Willis, 1996). Later on, learners will be repeating the examples in the target language or using both languages in presentations. In this way, students, sooner or later, will attain the speaking skills through exploring ways of speaking to one another in the target language (*ibid.*). In addition, this type of learner needs to be encouraged to practice the target language frequently. Willis (1996) suggests that students definitely need support to practice the target language and ought to develop additional opportunities to use it. Therefore, students would benefit from using the task they learned in the class (Willis, 1996).

It is expected that, second/foreign language teachers are not only required to obtain more understanding and knowledge with regard to the levels of learners' language proficiency, but we also need carefully to select supplementary materials and tasks supporting the learners with less progress to achievement. This point refers to different target tasks for language learners concerning target dialogue (i.e. the real-world things people do in daily lives) (Long & Norris, 2000). In so doing, low achieving students would find it more interesting and feel motivated to use the language for their real-world learning tasks rather than in the traditional lecture way of learning things. In light of this, TBLT is viewed as a procedure to facilitate the classroom methodology in motivating low achieving EFL/ESL learners' learning achievement.

3.3.9 The Application of TBLT in Taiwan for Language Use

Many English teachers habitually implement TBLT in a second/foreign language class. Using tasks in teaching EFL/ESL combines closely with developments in the study of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2003). TBLT takes into consideration that language acquisition is influenced by complex interactions involving many variables, including materials, tasks, activities, and evaluative feedback (Jeno & Hahn, 2006:123). TBLT could play a positive role in response to these variables (ibid.). That is to say, language learners can obtain a greater opportunity to use the language within communicative activities. Within that, they can use meaningful materials with a real-life situation to practice and receive feedback from the teacher and classmates.

Specifically for Asian students in Taiwan, there are very limited opportunities for English learners to use the target language for a given thing day after day. Related information will be found in the findings (See chapter 6). A TBLT class, however, provides a real world experience for them to expose themselves and use the target language to interact with one another (Jeno & Hahn, 2006). TBLT in language and educational contexts has become a main concept of the language curriculum and appears in syllabi guidelines in a number of nations of Asia Pacific areas, including China, Hong Kong, Korea, Japan, Vietnam, and Malaysia (Nunan, 2003). A recent TBLT seminar hosted by The University Foreign Language Centre in Northern Taiwan from 2005-2006 invited several TBLT experts (i.e. Rod Ellis), who have drawn our attention in the field of foreign language teaching and learning, which would benefit both language teachers and learners.

3.3.10 TBLT promotes Students' Motivation

Why is the use of TBLT applicable to use as a vehicle to increase students' motivation? Most teachers would see an effective method of increasing student motivation as the main issue while they design a syllabus to teach the second/foreign language. In particular, students seem keen at the beginning of the course, yet they soon begin to lose their interest due to a lack of having their language speaking skills tested or because they feel overwhelmed by exams which concentrate on grammar. Willis (1996) indicates that school exams are based on grammar, and language teachers overemphasize grammar teaching, which focuses on form rather than meaning.

In order to retain students' motivation to learn the target language, Willis (1996) suggests keeping students "motivation to listen and read (i.e. to process the exposure for meaning; and also to use the language; to speak and write)" (p.60). She further indicates that goal-oriented tasks become the centre of the motivation because students commonly have a desire to obtain the best outcomes. For example, they would engage in the tasks that meet their best interests in problem solving, succeeding in games or accomplishing other goals set by the teacher. One of the motivating factors lies in being able to accomplish the task successfully (Willis, 1996). Achieving success is the main incentive for students to wish to complete the tasks themselves.

According to Dornyei (2003), studies have highlighted task motivation, particularly in L2 motivational literature (i.e. the work of Julkune in 1989). Julkunen (2001) asserts that "students' task behaviour is fuelled by a combination of generalized and situation-specific motives according to specific task characteristics" (p.15). Tasks and activities provided by the teacher determine what knowledge students can attain from them and how, which also assists students to integrate their learned experience (Dornyei, 2003; Brophy & Alleman, 1991; Winne, 1987; Doyle, 1983). In addition, task-based learning texts would directly affect students' motivation to read or listen for a special purpose. Willis (1996) points out that in particular "students will interact with the text in a slightly different way, and retrieve different kinds of meanings according to the task goals" (p.83). Because of a variety of opportunities during the process of learning, selecting the texts is seen as an essential factor to determine what part of the target language students would use at the production stage.

3.4 Teaching of Learners with Low achievement

Brophy (2004) considers that the teacher strives to provide enough knowledge and skills to motivate the students to learn better. It is expected that learners can respond to effective teaching through the learning process while the teacher can perceive reasonable progress through the consequences of students' class response. However, here I emphasize that some students in the study still encountered motivational problems. They would achieve relatively less compared to other classmates. It is possible that they could have developed the problems through past experience of repeated failure in their learning history, which would result in other related consequences as argued by Brophy (*ibid.*). Perhaps, classroom expectancy-related motivational problems may remain throughout these students' lifetimes, wherein the teacher can apply himself or herself on effectively teaching to assist these learners (*ibid.*). In the following section I will distinguish these motivational problems as evident in Brophy's categories of four types of students with expectancy-related motivational problems.

3.4.1 Categories of Students with Expectancy-related Motivational Problems

In this study, I suspect that students being labelled with "low achievement status," develop low-expectations for themselves based upon the expectancy-related motivational problems. We can identify the participants' problems as they relate to Brophy's work in 2004. The following table, as shown in 3.5, clearly presents four categories of students based upon the expectancy-value framework of motivational theories.

Owing to these problems indicated above, Brophy (2004:119) found that "these students may need additional motivational support." That is to say, it is expected that extra attention and effective strategies are needed to assist students with a lack of motivation. To be specific, the teacher ought to be aware of whether expectancy-related motivational problems or other related consequences have caused students' learning problems. Here I address some possible effective motivational theories and Brophy's suggestions addressed in one of his books in 2004, which also mentioned the solution to the problem. To meet individual's needs to read better in the second/foreign language class, some possible effective strategies are given by Brophy in the next section.

Table 3.5 *Categories of Students with Expectancy-related Motivational Problems*
(adapted from Brophy's work in 2004 (p. 119))

<i>Four Type</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>Type 1</i>	Students with limited abilities who have difficulty keeping up and who thus develop chronically low expectations and numbed acceptance of failure.
<i>Type 2</i>	Students whose failure attributions or ability beliefs make them susceptible to learned helplessness in failure situations.
<i>Type 3</i>	Students who are obsessed with self-worth protection and thus focus on performance goals but not learning goals.
<i>Type 4</i>	Students who underachieve due to their desire to avoid responsibilities.

3.4.2 Possible Effective Motivational Theories to Improve Learning

Type 1: Some students with limited ability also develop low-expectations:

In other words, these types of students have developed low expectations in study, have fallen behind, or even have accepted their failure. In order to meet their needs, teachers need to reinforce effective lesson plans in support of learners' continuing learning efforts and motivational encouragement for their learning progress (Brophy, 2004). To be specific, individualized instructional materials or activities need to be considered as well. Teachers can be reassured students can obtain the target of the lesson objective in class, even if some students are behind in their tasks compared to others (ibid.).

Students also need to know they are accepted even though they may not keep up with other classmates (ibid.). The teacher can perhaps help them build up their possible achievable goals and making efforts toward the learning goal. They also need the 'valence' component from expectancy-value theories in L2 motivation research (See 3.6.1.4). Because of a lack of the 'value' notion in the aspects of motivation, they also show insufficient factors of 'self-efficacy' and 'performance expectancy' when they cannot meet their needs to achieve the goal.

Type 2: Students whose failure attributions or ability beliefs make them susceptible to learned helplessness in failure situations:

This focuses on the role of attributions which link students' past experiences to the future learning effort they expect. According to Stipek's (1993), learned helplessness is likely to be attributed to the individual with actual low ability levels. For instance, learned helpless individuals easily feel failure before the completion of tasks. Moreover, the learned helplessness seem likely to give up their tasks once they feel their assignments as being difficult (Galloway et al., 1998). Those who develop learned helplessness can be traced through all levels of academic ability, which only occurs in particular areas of achievement" (Brophy, 2004).

In order to help individuals to cope with learning difficulties, they require some useful learning techniques suggested by Brophy (2004), including attribution retraining, efficacy training, and strategy training. Individuals seem likely to find themselves maintaining tasks once they acquire useful techniques and useful information. In addition, Weiner (1992) argues that it is essential for teachers to find the factors, which caused the learner's failures or success in the past and the incentives behind the learners. In light of this factor, attribution theory plays the key role to enhance learners' motivation (See 3.6.3.1.2)

Type 3: Students who are obsessed with self-worth protection and thus focus on performance goals but not learning goals:

Self-worth refers to "people are highly motivated to maintain a fundamental sense of personal value and worth, especially in the face of competition, failure and negative feedback", according to Covington's work (1992) cited in Dorneyi (2001:23). Though the motivation style of "self-worth" is similar to the one of "learned helplessness", the former might appear in the need of protecting their own self worth motive and feel confident with their own level of ability, but unsure of actual competency. However, the latter appear easily hopeless as far as their concern with lack of ability imposes a threat to the learners' confidence (Galloway et al., 1998).

In another words, these types of students demand teachers' empathy and concern to help them feel more confidence though they tend to feel obsessed with self-worth protection

(ibid.). That is to say, teachers should help these types of students to explore their priorities and help them to learn better by enhancing their confidence in obtaining knowledge and learning skills. On the other hand, students with lower self-worth protection maintain pursuing performance goals because they prefer social goals rather than learning goals (ibid.). Once they seem to be actively performing in class, they must be reminded not to be preoccupied with short-term social goals. Goals theories, based on recent L2 motivational studies and research, have been centred on increasing students' learning goals (McClelland, 2000, Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Clement & Kruidenier, 1983). In order to understand different learners' goals, we will enhance their insights to see their goal with a view to achieving desired outcomes (Molden and Dweck, 2000). By so doing, it may identify different types of learners' goals, and help them set up their learning goals rather than performance goals (See 3.6.1.5).

In order to distinguish the difference amongst learning goals, performance goals, and social goals, we can observe a marked difference, as shown in table 3.6 as follows:

Table 3.6 *Types of Different Goals* (Urdan & Maehr, 1995; Ames, 1992; Dweck, 1986)

<i>Type of goals</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>Learning goals,</i>	also called task involvement or learning goals, which stress individuals' obtaining knowledge and skills from the learning content
<i>Performance goals</i>	also called ego-involvement goals, which are centred on individuals having a strong desire to do better than others, or do well with less effort
<i>Social goals</i>	aimed at enhancing individuals' relationships amongst people

Type 4: Students who underachieve due to a desire to avoid responsibilities:

In other words, this type of learner with a lack of desire exerts fewer efforts to contribute his/ her accountability to the self or group work. They need teachers to assure them with perhaps a degree of task assistance to understand. It is expected for them to achieve success as long as they are willing to continue their efforts (Brophy, 2004). While some underachievers with serious problems make excuses for work avoidance,

teachers can reinforce some strategies, as indicated by Mandel and Marcus (1988), including the use of confrontational technique, or a collaboration agreement between home and school to control learners' behaviour. In addition to that, due to students' frequency of withdrawal, which is causing damage for their learning achievement, teachers need to focus on achievement motivation effectively to influence younger underachievers. If not, their academic problems will lead to behavioural problems later on. For adult learners, it seems likely to be effective while using both strategies of persuasion and confrontation.

3.4.3 Conclusion: The Use of CTBL as Possible Solution for Low Achievers

CTBL approach postulated in Educational Contexts

As indicated above, cooperative learning methodology has been successful and this study incorporates this approach with Task-based language teaching (TBLT) for the study group of low achieving students in a Taiwanese university. There must be a great concern about the classroom environment while instructing this group of students. We can see that developing an educational setting within a group-learning environment is helpful for individuals working towards the same group-objective learning process. Indeed, Shachar (2003) echoes the similar notion that "Cooperative learning reflects a far more appropriate pattern of thought about teaching and learning than does the traditional WC (Whole Class) instruction approach" (p.29). In this environment, students no longer work as individuals, but form a reciprocal learning environment with others and can benefit from this group-learning environment when they work towards the same goal. It is thus worthwhile for them to learn better and help one another during the process of cooperative learning, instead of competing against each other and other groups. The majority of research and studies presented in the first part of this chapter is likely to support this position.

It is hoped that the practice of task-based learning and teaching (TBLT) will help these university learners to promote their thinking process and to find solutions to problems, and to be keen to use English in group discussions and stage presentations.

Last but not least, as shown in Brophy's categories which define students with learning problems, motivational strategies would help learners to become better learners in the

class. I believe that integrating both teaching strategies of CTBL (cooperative and task-based learning) is a way to motivate this study group, based on different aspects of the most appropriate motivational theories. In light of this factor, related motivational theories in this study will be investigated as follows.

Part II Towards an approach for analyzing teaching data: Motivation to Learning a Second/Foreign Language

3.5 Introduction

The latter half of this chapter reviews the literature relating to motivational psychology with a view to developing a motivational model, which can be used to describe reading in the second/foreign language CTBL classroom. I describe and discuss major motivational theories from the fields of general psychology, social psychology, education, and second language learning. I also analyse, compare and evaluate these theories in relation to the extent and quality of supporting evidence. This chapter concludes by drawing together the different theoretical perspectives from my list combining L2 motivational theories and the first language reading construct, and then presents the data needed to generate a proposed explanatory model.

3.5.1 Motivation: An Overview

Brophy (2004) states, ‘Motives are hypothetical constructs used to explain why people are doing what they are doing’ (p.4). He adds that ‘motives are usually construed as relatively general needs or desires that energize people to initiate purposeful action sequences (continuation)’ (p.5). In addition, Galloway et al. (2004) point out that motivation is seen as a concept, which is indirect. They state that it aims to help educators to find ways better to understand students’ behaviours and a way to improve their performances, and furthermore, to help teachers review their pedagogies and practices. Indeed, the importance of motivation is likely to affect students’ academic improvement and teachers’ growth in teaching and learning.

3.5.2 What is ‘Motivation’?

Essential definitions of motivation have widely covered the many different aspects of causative needs relating to human behaviour. Motivation refers to ‘an internal state, which activates and gives direction to our thoughts, feelings, and actions’ (Lahey, 1995:52). In addition, Williams and Burden (1997) state that motivation is defined ‘in terms of the press, i.e. the urge, to release the tension and satisfy the needs’ (p.113). However, it is important to note that motivation is considered as a functional, continual personality trait combined with dependence on the domain of a specific task (Galloway et al., 1998).

3.5.3 Influential Contemporary Motivational Theories in Psychology:

Drive theory, Self-determination theory, Achievement theory, Attribution theory, Self-worth theory, Self-efficacy Theory, Goal theories

Reviewing the study of motivational psychology, different theoretical perspectives tend to explain a wide range of focal conceptions, which emerged with their own distinct perspectives. Dornyei (2001) states that the attributes of human behaviour in psychology have been studied within two paradigms of research traditions in which one lies in motivational psychology while the other involves social psychology. Elliot et al. (2005) argue that in the latter half of the twentieth century the study of motivation has shown the importance of cognitive and social variables due to the limitations of behavioural studies. For the purpose of review, this section focuses solely on the main influential theories of motivation in general. Regarding social psychology, the latter part focuses on second language learning and motivational theories and will describe its history and development. The following theories of motivation are seen as emphasizing the relevant significant developments in psychology, such as drive theory and three other dominant theories: expectancy-value theories, goal theory, and self-determination motivation based on Dornyei’s (2001) as well as Elliot et al.’s (2005) views on theoretical conceptualization.

In the early twentieth-century theory of motivation, drive theories were distinguished from other motivational hypotheses because these theories focused solely on the existence of basic needs (either actual or potential) by defining motives such as hunger

and thirst as prime factors (Hull, 1943). Weiner (1992) believes that drive theory created greater opportunities for humans to understand motivational behaviour.

At a later date, with the turn away from attention to behaviour, self-determination motivation theorists (Deci & Ryan, 1985) initiated the idea of identifying intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation as main motivational ideas. For example, intrinsic motivation is thought to satisfy individuals' inner curiosity and needs for action while extrinsic motivation focuses on people's action because they desire to receive extrinsic rewards (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Vallerand, 1997). However, other research has shown that internal as well as external motives adhere to one another, instead of separating individuals' perceived behaviours caused by inside and outside motives. Summarising these points, Dornyei (2001) suggests, "Various types of motives were suggested along a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation, depending on how 'internalised' they are" (p. 28).

3.5.3.1 Expectancy-value framework: Achievement Theory, attribution theory, self-worth theory, and self-efficacy theory

3.5.3.1.1 Achievement Theory

Dornyei (2001) points out that the 'expectancy-value' framework greatly influenced the conceptions of motivational theory in psychology over the last four decades, including achievement theory, attribution theory, self-efficacy theory, and self-worth theory. He adds that Atkinson and his colleagues' (1974) classic theory of achievement motivation is the beginning of all conceptualizations, which attempted to improve the drive reduction approach to motivation and focus upon the notion of humans' need to achieve. To be specific, this theory is seen as identifying two important factors in determining the individual's motivation to achieve tasks: expectancy of success with one's given task and the value of the self willing to succeed with certain tasks (Dornyei, 2001). Perceived probability of success, need for achievement, the value of successful task fulfilment, and fear of failure all determine achievement motivation (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974).

However, Atkinson's theory of achievement motivations is limited to the consideration of achievement-related human behaviour. The other area we need to explore is how humans interact with their environment. Williams & Burden (1997) stress that it is not enough merely to know the level of the self's need to achieve because this want depends on the situation, which is influenced by self judgement to see the chances of success and the value of a successful outcome. Some people prefer more difficult tasks and respond more positively to perceived failure than those lacking in achievement motivation.

Later, the evidence of this study will show how some individuals in small groups perceive their need for achievement as well as determining the value of successful tasks through group work.

3.5.3.1.2 Attribution theory

Another aspect of achievement motivation, which had significant influences on student motivation in the 1980s, is attribution theory (Dornyei, 2001). Attribution theorists (e.g. Weiner) identify individuals' performance in successes and failure as ascribed to people's past experiences. Weiner (1992) states that different factors ('causal attributions') would affect students' actions differently and that these circumstances are based on their understanding of motivational consequences on themselves as well as commencement of their actions in the future. In particular, Weiner (1992) points out that these two key factors, ability and effort, in educational contexts are seen as the most important perceived variables which greatly influence students' performance. In contrast, he also adds that this study has shown that 'past failure that is ascribed by the learners to low ability hinders future achievement behaviour more than failure that is ascribed to insufficient effort' (Weiner, 1992, p.122). Cookes and Schmidt (1991) also suggest that students attribute their lower performance to their inability instead of causes, which originate from other variables, such as the difficulty of the text or poor instruction by the teacher.

Indeed, this theory has provided a number of different factors, which dominate the expectancy of students' academic performance. However, a shortcoming of this concept is that it does not describe the insights of individuals willingly accept challenges and act to achieve success. That is to say, this theory does however attempt to explain their insights with different aspects of cognitive, affective, and behavioural factors (Molden

and Dweck, 2000). Within this study, it will be seen that some students would consider their past success or failures as incentives toward their motivation.

3.5.3.1.3 Self-worth Theory

Another perspective on motivation is to consider how people being highly motivated see ‘their sense of personal value and worth’ (Covington, 1992, p.88). Covington states that ‘when these perceptions are threatened, individuals struggle desperately to protect them, which results in a number of unique patterns of face-saving behaviours in school settings’ (p.88). Within this theory Covington (1992) focuses on one’s striving to sustain his/her self-esteem, particularly when students utilize face-saving behavioural patterns because of their poor performance in educational contexts. That is to say, this basic need for self-worth generates a number of unique patterns of motivational beliefs and face-saving behaviours in school settings, particularly when students’ potentially poor performance imposes a threat to their self-esteem. In addition, Dornyei (2001) points out that ‘in such situations, students may actually stand to gain by not trying, that is, by deliberately withholding effort, because this would allow failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than to low ability’ (p. 23).

This theory is likely to be useful in studying a group with limited ability, and we shall see that team members sometimes attribute their poor performance to lack of time and effort rather than their insufficient ability and competence.

3.5.3.1.4 Self-efficacy Theory

Another type of the ‘expectancy’ component of the expectancy-value model is self-efficacy (e.g. Bandura, 1993). This theory explicitly explains causes and consequences of how individuals judge their own abilities and competencies. With a view to understanding their abilities to perform certain specific tasks, their sense of efficacy will control the level of their wants and they will choose their activities along with carrying out their wanted effort and persistence (Dornyei, 2001). Dornyei adds that Bandura’s self-efficacy theory has shown the strong influence of four factors: ‘previous performance, vicarious learning (i.e. learning through observing models), verbal encouragement by others, one’s physiological reactions (e.g. anxiety)’ (p.22). For example, individuals with low self-efficacy in a given task ascribe their deficiency in

their abilities to their perceived difficulties regarding the task threat. In particular some students would solely focus on how they experience their lack of abilities while encountering obstacles, which devalue the outcomes of success. On the other hand, individuals with a sense of higher self-efficacy are likely to perform their tasks with confidence and accomplish successful outcomes with their processed competency (Dornyei, 2001). In light of these points, Dornyei (2001) suggests that individuals with a strong sense of efficacy are likely to focus on performing their tasks and maintaining their efforts successfully.

As we shall see, some students in this study believe in their capabilities in doing something through small group work although they feel difficulties in their given tasks.

3.5.3.1.5 Goal Theories

Dornyei (2004) proposes that goal theories are ‘based on the assumption that human action is caused by purpose, and for action to take place, goals have to be set and proposed by choice’ (p.434). Molden and Dweck (2000) also consider that by understanding individuals’ goals we will enhance individuals’ insights in order to see outcomes with a view to achieving desired effects. To be specific, during the past two decades goal orientation theory has been in particular one of the influential conceptions in the field of achievement motivation (Patrick, 2004; Urdan, 2004, Elliott et al. 2005). The theorists (e.g. McClelland, 1985 and Murray, 1938) explain these three types of key components of goals as defined by individuals’ success: achievement, power, and social factors are the three significant key elements.

In the area of achievement motivation, the work on goal-theory has differentiated three separate types of aims: mastery goals (also called task involvement or learning goals, which stress individuals’ obtaining knowledge and skills from the learning content); performance goals (also called ego-involvement goals, which are centred on individuals having a strong desire to do better than others, or do well with less effort) and social goals, which are aimed at enhancing individuals’ relationships amongst people (Ames, 1992; Dweck, 1986; Urdan & Maehr, 1995). However, Dweck (2000), explaining the notion of achievement goals, argues that ‘overemphasis on performance goals can drive out learning goals, leading students to pass up valuable learning opportunities if they involve any risk of errors... an overemphasis on performance goals can foster a helpless

response' (p.16). Therefore, it is essential to assist students' to develop appropriate beliefs and furthermore, establish their specific goals setting, which will help them to achieve successful outcomes.

Indeed, mastering this theory helps the teacher to gain more insights into understanding the reasons behind students' motivation to achieve (Elliot et al. 2005). In fact, individuals learning in such a goal-oriented context will enhance their knowledge acquisition abilities and thus develop new knowledge and skills. In so doing, methods of improving students' insights will increase their motivation in terms of goal-orientation. Therefore, this theory is the centre of the study group because learners constantly set up goals for individual as well as group 'orientation'.

3.5.3.1.6 Summary

The theories mentioned above primarily focus on many of the important motivational constructs such as drive theory, expectancy-value framework, self-determination theory, and goal theories. Indeed, some of these ideas capture the core questions with regard to understanding the differences amongst the students of the study group and link to individuals' actions determined by their values and belief in their capability or expectancy of achieving successful outcomes. These general motivational theories will appear later in the section on second language motivational theory and conclusion.

3.6 Other Relevant Theories in Relation to Reading in a Foreign Language

3.6.1 First Language Reading Motivation

In a recent research and survey, most Taiwanese university instructors noticed a huge number of English learners with reading difficulties, and thus these teachers strove to reach out by finding some helpful strategies, and by exchanging their effective pedagogy with other experts. Levels of success in this endeavor are likely to be associated with the learners' past history in terms of L1 reading motivation, which can be the hidden factor causing their reading problems in a foreign language. However some research with regard to L1 reading has indicated that reading vocabulary and reading comprehension are closely related to each other (Tai, 2002; Stahl, 1990). We believe most students' comprehension problems in reading a foreign language would likely come from a lack of English vocabulary. In addition to this problem, different L1

researchers have found that reading motivation represents an indirect link to reading comprehension (Baker and Wigfield, 1999).

More importantly, Wigfield and Guthrie in their work in 1995 propose their hypothesis of first language reading motivation. They consider that the incentives of students who learn English are likely to involve speaking or listening rather than reading. Regarding first language reading motivation, related studies (i.e. Van Kraayenoord and Schneider, 1999; Carr & Borkowski, 1989) have found that there is a close relationship between reading motivation and the use of reading skills/ strategies. In chapter 2, it is addressed that EFL students in Taiwan often have vocabulary problems when working from bottom up. So there seems to be at least some correlation between reading skills and reading motivation. This point needs to be borne in mind as we look at the more specialised research on second/foreign language reading.

3.6.2 Second Language Reading Motivation

Abundant research and literature concerning motivational factors in communicating or interacting in a second language can be found, though very little material focuses on second language reading motivation (Mori, 2002). Mori (2002) hypothesizes that motivation to reading a second language differs from L1 reading motivation and may be independent of motivational theories in general psychology.

There is noteworthy research found by Day and Bamford (1998), which opines that an expectancy + value model of motivation exists in second language motivation to read. Day and Bamford (1998) introduce and develop this L2 reading motivational idea to draw upon 'four major variables - materials, reading ability, attitudes, and socio-cultural environment – all of which are seen as motivating the desire to read a second language. Two of these variables -materials and reading ability - relate to the value attached to reading the second language' (p.28-29). Thus, these factors will be borne in mind as we go further into other theories. As we shall see later the factors, which are important in the research can be better theorised by using Gardner or other theorists.

Since they will likely deal specifically with reading in L2, we will need to look at theories of L2 learning in general, and this will be the focus of the next sections.

3. 7 The Scope of Motivational Construct and Second Language Learning

Although a considerable diversity of L2 motivational theories have been put forward during the past four decades, this section focuses solely on the main second language motivation theories which I will describe and consider in terms of the challenges they present to teachers and students in the practical context of the language classroom. Amongst an abundance of literature on motivation in second language learning psychology, one of the recent L2 motivational models developed by Gardner & Tremblay (1995) will prove to be most useful to my study. In light of this fact, I will present this concept in detail (Gardner & Tremblay, 1995) and also include some variables derived from the data I found to show why I decided to focus on Gardner and Tremblay.

3.7.1 Overview: Second Language Learning Motivation Psychology

Dornyei (2004) observes that, regarding second language learning in the twenty first-century, there are an increasing number of nation states which are multi-ethnic and multicultural and this point, combined with the increasing need for international communication among speakers of different languages means that, as a consequence, there is a widespread requirement for people to understand and speak a second language and thus there is already significant motivation for people to learn a second language.

Within this concept of learning a second/foreign language, there has been a great deal of literature and research studies in the field of L2 motivational psychology since the 1960s, such as Gardner & Lambert (1959, 1972), Dornyei (1990, 1994a, 1994b, 1998, 2001), Oxford & Shearin (1994, 1996), Crookes & Schmidt (1991), MacIntyre (1999), etc. For the last four decades, most L2 motivational psychologists were spearheaded by how L2 students' perceptions of the L2 speakers and the L2 culture leads to their desire to learn the second/ foreign language (Dornyei, 2001). Dornyei (2001) believes that the degree of motivation for second language learning is closely linked to the learner's target culture. The desire to learn requires adjustment of the self not only through adopting new social and cultural behaviours, but it also involves influencing learners' perceptions of the L2 (Williams and Burden, 1997).

In the following section I will present some influential general motivational theories with regard to foreign language learning because they will help me to answer my research question and explain the findings of my work.

3.8 Alternative Theoretical Approaches with L2 Motivation

There is currently an increasing interest in the cognitive revolution in respect to the study of psychology in the 1990s. In particular, many L2 motivation researchers are beginning to emphasize cognitive theories, which they then use to establish a clear dimension of L2 motivation (Dornyei, 2003). In addition, cognitive psychology is being extended with increasing neurobiological research in a broader field, which becomes the study of cognitive neuro-science. In response to the needs of language teaching and learning, researchers in this new era adopt mainstream cognitive methods in psychology and this includes the application by Schumann (1998) of neuro-research to the study of SLA. In so doing, L2 motivation psychology also includes crucial developments in L2 research. To explain the relations between cognitive theories in psychology and L2 motivation, I include four influential cognitive approaches presented earlier and their relationship to second language motivation: expectancy-value theories, self-determination theory, attribution theory, and goal theories.

3.8.1 Expectancy-value Theories in L2 Motivation Research

In the past, there existed no expectancy-value model mentioned in SLA theories; however, several variables in relation to relevant theories have appeared in combination with other components in some L2 motivational theories (Dornyei, 2001). For example, Gardner's (1985) motivation theory applies two aspects of value: intrinsic and extrinsic value. The former has been measured in Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) extended model, under the valence of the 'desire to learn the L2' and 'attitudes towards learning the L2' scales. The latter, extrinsic value is assessed on the integrative and instrumental orientation scales (Dornyei, 2001). A point worth noting is that Tremblay and Gardner's revised model in 1995 presents variables linked to expectancy-value framework found by some researchers (i.e. Brophy, 2004; Eccles and Wigfield, 1995), who indicate the core notion of expectancy of success and the value attached to success on the given task (Dornyei, 2001). The key components, such as 'desire to learn' and 'self-efficacy' are included in the model (See figure 6.1.1) in which 'self-efficacy' reflects a performance expectancy variable, which has been found in the research on attributions in L2 learning. We shall see later that there are key variables appearing in this study, which the theories of expectancy-value framework can explain.

3.8.2 Attribution Theory and L2 Motivation

Amongst contemporary motivation theories particularly during the 80s, attribution theory has become the dominant model in the study of students' motivation. It focuses on the role attribution plays as the mediating link between the individual's past experiences and their future achievement efforts (Dornyei, 2003; Williams & Burden, 1999; Weiner, 1992). In this study, attributions constitute crucial factors at the beginning to lead to individuals' success and failure because the study group involved the idea of the use of 'achievement grouping' in the first-year university English course. This phenomenon is likely to cause some of the more capable students to lower their English achievement levels and these phenomena might echo Weiner's work on Attribution Theory in 1992 in which these internal factors are very likely to cause various university learners to experience difficulties in English courses.

However in some situations in this study students apparently succeeded because of their strong interests in group work and process syllabus to trigger their sense of 'desire to learn' with 'self-efficiency.'

3.8.3 Self-determination Theory and L2 Motivation

Self-determination theory is widely applied in the field of L2 theory. Many L2 researchers adapt this approach to their studies often associated with some common variables of the theory, such as intrinsic motivation (IM) and extrinsic motivation (EM) (Dornyei, 2001a). Their work from Noels and her colleagues in 2003 successfully explain L2 learner's motivation from a self-determination perspective. One of the successful examples is: "language learners who feel that L2 fluency is an important aspect of their educational development will endure repetitive oral exercises in the interest of attaining this level of competence" (p. 39-40). It is worth noting that learners' positive attitudes toward the learning situation have a strong link with the individuals' L2 achievement and this can also be found in Gardner's socioeducational model in 1985 (Noels et al., 2003). Moreover, Noels et al. (2003) claims that a number of facts show that the distinction between IM and EM can predict the learning outcomes of the L2 learners although no self-determination framework exists yet, as claimed by Dornyei (1994a)..

Ushioda (1996) states in a monograph on motivation and learners' autonomy: 'Autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners' (p.2) and this analysis has become an area of popular L2 motivational studies in recent decades, and many researchers have acknowledged this point (Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan, 2002; Ushioda, 2001). In this study, the majority have shown their positive attitudes towards their learning environment while learning a language, which remains the main factor with autonomous learners regarding their learning goals.

3.8.4 Goal Theories and L2 Motivation

In some recent L2 motivational studies and research, goals have been focused on (Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Clement & Kruidenier, 1983; McClelland, 2000). Their influence may have been previously concealed by the fact that language learning "goals" have been typically referred to as "orientations." In Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) study, they connect orientation with various goal theories in psychological literature. In their extended model, Tremblay and Gardner introduce the concept of "goal salience" as one of its central components, not however the predominant goal orientation theory. This conceptualization of "goal salience" is combined with the notion involving the specificity of the individuals' "goals setting" along with individuals' frequent use of goal-setting strategies (Dornyei, 2003). "Goal setting" is likely to motivate learners in an L2 learning environment and also it can stimulate individuals spending their energy engaging in goal-setting within a limited time (Oxfoed & Shearin, 1994). In this study, as we shall see, "goal salience" constitutes a direct link involved in actively explaining the findings in this work.

3.9 The Most Influential Social Psychologist: Robert Gardner

3.9.1 Gardner's L2 Motivation Scene

In contemporary L2 motivational psychology, Gardner plays the leading role in the field of social and educational psychology. Starting in the late 1950s, the Canadian social psychologists, Gardner and Lambert, initiated one of the most influential socio-psychology models of motivational theories, which not only affected the subsequent social and educational learning context of the bilingual field, but also developed into the thorough and complex L2 approach in Gardner's following important publications. In the work of Gardner and Lambert in 1972, they consider second languages as key factors to helping people in varied language communities to negotiate differences

among distinct ethnic settings. Motivation to learn another community's language is the main requirement for people to enrich intercultural communication (Dornyei, 2001). In light of this approach, the key issue is to examine what an individual's attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community are, as this will influence L2 learning behaviour. At this stage, Gardner and Lambert believed that a person is successful in learning second languages because his/her learning behaviour reflects their enjoyment in communicating with people who speak the target language (Dornyei, 2001). Gardner (1985) argued that attitudes towards the community of people speaking the target language are of great influence in the students' learning success in L2.

In 1985, Gardner distinguished important variables in orientation and motivation, which affect the learner's performance. Gardner said that 'orientation' refers to a person acquiring a language for a long-term goal. At the same time, he also made a distinction between integrative orientation and instrumental orientation in motivation with the former referring to the individual learning a language with an open-minded attitude, with the expectation of becoming an accepted member of the second language community, and to identify with a part of that society. However, the latter concept defines that learning the target language should function for utilitarian purposes. For example, the person can get a job, read some publications, learn a trade, etc. In light of this point, the student is likely to present one kind of orientation while learning a language, which becomes the incentive to achieve learning goals.

3.9.2 Gardner's definition of Motivation

The other factor in motivation causes the learner's achievement, and is considered in terms of "motivation intensity" (Ellis, 2004). Gardner (1985) defines 'motivation' as "effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language" (p.10). At that stage, motivation in L2 learning has three main components: motivational intensity, desire to learn the language, and attitudes towards learning the language. Gardner (1985) argues that these three components go hand in hand, and that the motivated self forms a bond of all three. There are also the earlier described two roles of orientations, which function to raise the individual's motivation and promote his/her achievement goals. In so doing, the self could raise his/her desire to learn because of either (interpersonal) integrative or practical (instrumental) functions (Dornyei, 2001).

In early days, the role of integrative motivation proposed from Gardner and Lambert originated from Mowrer's theory of first language acquisition. Mowrer considers that the reasons causing a child's success comes from the self's searching for his/her identity (Young, 1994). The early stage for the child in quest of his/her identify comes from being amongst the family; the later stage introduces his/her language social environment (Lambert, 1980). The works of Lambert and Gardner suggest that integrative motivation correlated most strongly with measures of L2 learners' success. That is to say, the integrative motivation accompanies higher achievement in foreign language learning (Gardner and Lambert, 1959). Despite the results of the early study, other later researches revealed students' achievements also show high correlation to instrumental motivation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Schumann, 1975; Lai, 1977; Yen, 1995). It remains unclear whether the individual with higher instrumental motivation towards L2 learning functions better than the one with stronger integrative motivation towards the learning goals.

Thus both orientation and motivation can assist in studying L2, but they are not the same. Orientation is defined as the reason why individuals study a foreign language (Gardner, 1985). As indicated above, "motivation" refers to focus on individuals' effort ready for learning a foreign language and their persistence to learn it. By so doing, learners might perform at different motivation levels to explain specific orientation behind it, in order to achieve their learning goals (Ellis, 2004). Gardner (1985) continues that it appears likely some learners might possess an integrative orientation, but not be motivated enough to learn the other language. Indeed, the later work of Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) claims that orientations affect the learners' achievement less than motivation. They consider that either an integrative or instrumental orientation cannot stimulate the self to raise his/ her language proficiency to learn L2, but it needs to link with motivation (*ibid.*). Amending their original theory, their later works show that instrumental motivation becomes more significant in some teaching environments, such as the social milieu in the Philippines or India. Nevertheless, Gardner in the most recent works admits that instrumental and integrated motivations are both important, and can coexist in second language contexts of some learning environments (Ellis, 2004).

3.9.4 Three Aspects of Gardner's Motivation Theory Influencing Second/ Foreign Language Learning

To summarize, Gardner's motivation theory has three aspects closely related to this study, as shown in Table 3.7, which influence later theories in learners' acquisition of second/ foreign language learning in motivation, according to Dornyei (2001):

Table 3.7 *Gardner's Motivation Theory and My study*

	Three aspects	Key concept related to my empirical study
1	The construct of the integrative motive	<p>The integrative motive refers to “a motivation to learn a second language because of positive feelings toward the community that speaks that language” (Gardner, 1985: 82-3). There are three key components comprising integrative motive: 1. motivation (referring to effort, desire, and attitude towards learning); 2. attitudes towards the language learning context; 3. integrativeness (which means reflecting the “individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups”) (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993a: 159 cited in Dornyei, 2001:50). These three components are derived from samples among world studies, in which L2 motivation is generally associated with a positive attitude towards the L2 group, suggested by Dornyei (2001).</p> <p>Amongst these three, the most influential one, integrativeness, seemed in the Canadian studies to be the likely predominant learners' choice in preparing for learning the language, which directly reflects the level of their effort. However, general language education in Taiwan, particularly in the language-learning environment, is distinctly different from that of Canada. The point worth noting here is that the majority of students are likely to obtain opportunities to speak or</p>

		listen to foreign/second languages in school, but not in general social settings. Needless to say, they, in Taiwan, rarely come into contact with speakers of the target language.
2	The socio-educational model	The socio-educational model (see Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993a) explains learning the language in terms of learners' different characteristics. There are four key aspects concerning learners' learning process in L2, including the learners' variables (i.e. intelligence, language aptitude, language learning strategies, language attitudes, motivation and language anxiety), language acquisition context, learning outcomes, and antecedent factors (i.e. gender, age or learning history). (Dornyei, 2001). Amongst these four factors, learners' obtaining L2 is concerned with the learning contexts, which leads to linguistic and non-linguistic learning outcomes (ibid.). In Taiwan, EFL learners are likely to receive non-linguistic rather than linguistic learning outcomes because it is a monolingual environment.
3	Gardner and Tremblay's extended model	<p>Both Gardener and his colleague, Tremblay in 1995, revised Gardner's original social psychological constructs of L2 motivation by integrating key elements from expectancy-value and goal theories (Dornyei, 2001).</p> <p>In this model, there are three novel variables among learners' attitudes and behaviours, including valence, self-efficacy, and goal salience. This revised model seems not only to use Gardner's earlier socially grounded construct but also adds some cognitive motivational theories. In it, the model demonstrates a causal-link relation, which directly leads to the</p>

individual's language attitudes towards the L2 learning situation to achievement through some influential variables, such as attitudes towards the French language dominance (in Canada), motivational behaviour, etc. There are three new clusters of elements such as the added variables between attitudes and behaviour, e.g. goal salience, valence and self-efficacy. First, goal salience includes specificity of the individual's goals and the frequency of one's strategies used for goal setting; Second, valence refers to the self's 'desire to learn the L2' and 'attitudes towards learning the L2' that indicates the value of learning L2 components. Third, self-efficacy subsumes the learner's anxiety between the use of L2 and learning in L2 class, and 'performance expectancy' means the learner could present the valued outcome of class language activities. This model combines Gardner's socio-psychology of motivational construct with the latest cognitive motivational theories. As an extra component incorporated into Gardner's socio-educational model of L2 learning, it also indicates the integrity of the model itself (Dornyei, 2001). In addition, the recent model was also tested among a group of seventy-five Canadian students learning French, and it has also been tested in earlier research, and demonstrated its useful findings in a sample of 75 Canadian students learning French (Dornyei, 2001). In my study, I adapted this model and used it to explain some key variables in it because my study is deals with learners in a Taiwan's university language classroom setting, not in an L2 social context in Montréal, Canada.

From above, the most useful and practical method seems Gardner and Tremblay's revised model in 1995, which is a more suitable conception adapted in my empirical study. More importantly, this model compared with Gardner's earlier concepts of L2 motivation, makes a clear distinction that extends the original social educational model

in 1985 and influenced the following theories in the 1990s. I find it practical and thus have adapted some components in my postulated model (See Chapter 6), such as the desire to learn, attitudes towards the L2 learning situation, self-efficacy, motivational behaviour, vice visa.

Generally speaking, many studies have found Gardner's work to be the most influential with reference to socio-educational models for L2 learners. In addition, criticisms have developed regarding the socio-psychological perspective on motivation in 1990s and, according to Ellis (2004), there are three pertinent causes: First, he says that some theorists question that it only indicates causative links (i.e., it led to L2 achievement) within Gardner's work, which requires the intervention involved in educational contexts to motivate the learners having a desire to learn. However, many L2 learners' motivation is originally created by their learning success. Furthermore, the model can hardly describe how motivation is dynamic. It is viewed as static and yet motivation is shifting all the time as a result of pupils' learning experiences. Finally, Cookes & Schmits (1991) have indicated that different aspects of teaching methods are not likely to provide learners' opportunities to directly develop their intrinsic motives while they are in the learning process and the socio-psychological perspective is not helpful. More importantly, these researchers suggest a pedagogical perspective rather than a sociopsychological outlook on motivation proposed by Gardner's earlier work in the 1990s (*ibid.*).

In responding to this criticism, Gardner and Tremblay (1994a and b) clarify that they see motivation as a dynamic process while other variables apply flexibly within it, particular considering it in their later work (i.e. 1995 and 1997). In addition, attempting to respond to the issues raised in the work of Gardner and his associate, other L2 motivation researchers have given increasing consideration to motivation theories from general psychology because they go beyond the limitations in the area of SLA (Ellis, 2004). For example, one of the most influential motivation psychologists on L2 learning, Dornyei (2001), indicates "...in order to understand why students behave as they do, we need a detailed and most likely eclectic construct that represents multiple perspectives" (p.13). However, there is no doubt increasing students' motivation requires teachers to be aware of useful pedagogies to fit different level of learners, and this is a relevant viewpoint in answering the question raised in this thesis.

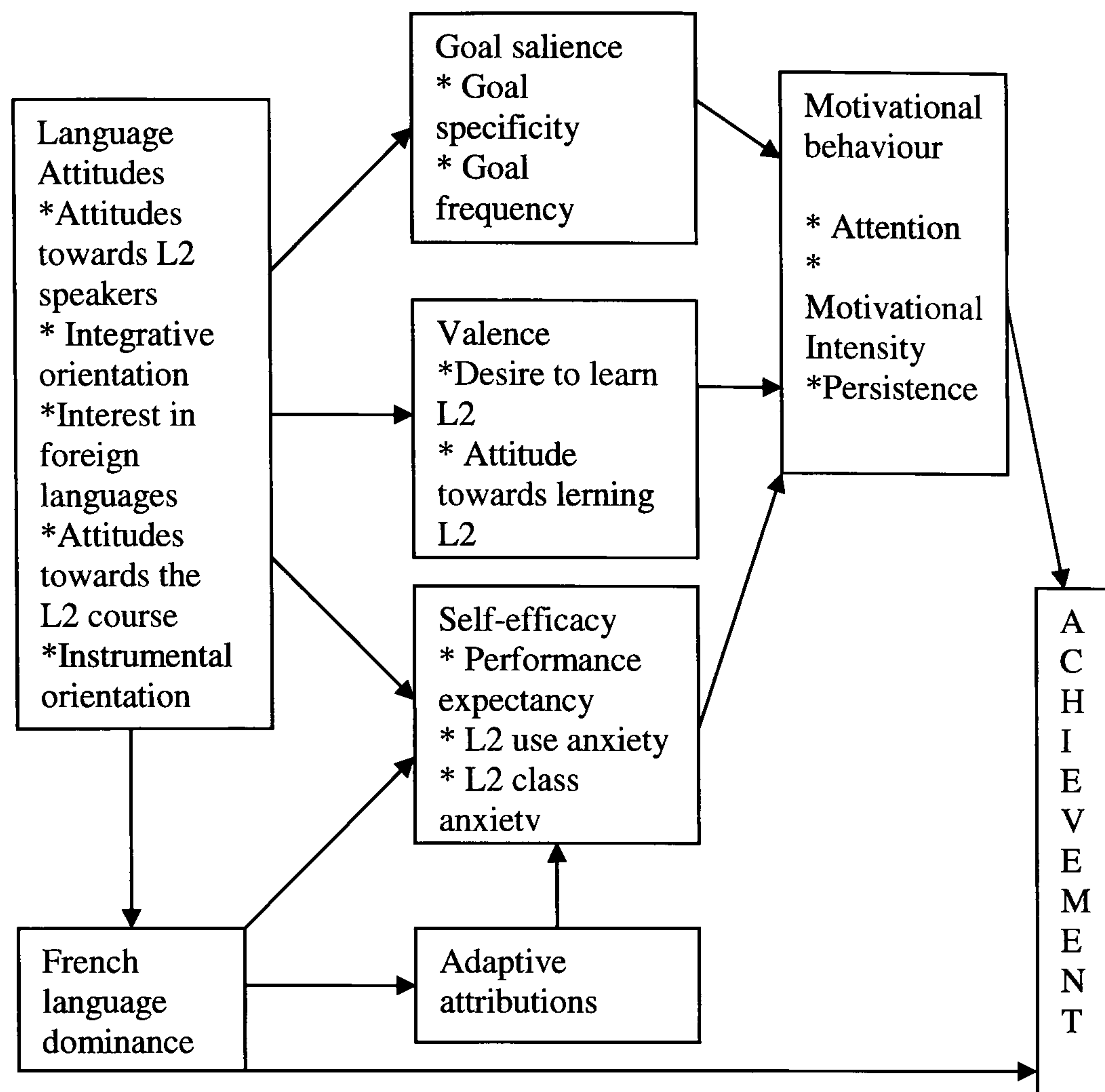


Figure 3.3 *Tremblay and Gardner's model of L2 motivation in 1995*

3.10 Conclusion: The Postulated Model of Motivation for Reading Success in the Second/ Foreign Language

The second part of the chapter has shown the relevant motivational theories, which I will use to help analyze the data of students. To be specific, students will be shown to be motivated to learn because of the practice of CTBL approach (see the first part of this chapter). Particularly with respect to Gardner and Tremblay (1995), I shall in a later chapter enrich their model by adapting it to involve the theories of cooperative learning and the task-based learning teaching.

In this proposed model, lower-level university students' motivation to learn in and outside of class is stimulated by the use of the CTBL approach. Drawing on aspects of cooperative learning theories, my postulated model will include other variables, as described by cooperative learning theorists, such as Johnson and Johnson. I will describe this model in its entirety in Chapter 6.

3.11 Summary

In the first part of the chapter CL and TBLT have been shown to promote students' motivation. The second stage was to identify a theory of L2 motivation, which will help conceptualise motivation to read in L2 and Gardner and Tremblay's (1995) theory has been shown to be an appropriate choice because it has been carefully developed over many years on the basis of empirical research and also because it incorporates theory and concepts from general motivational psychology. However, Gardner & Tremblay's extended work has not involved the study of the impact of class-based instruction towards motivation to learn. Their model needs to be improved in order to be useful and practiced in the classroom. So, as we shall see in later chapters, I will combine the notion of cooperative learning and tasked-based learning teaching method and enrich their model of motivation in my study.

In the following methodology chapter, I will describe how and why this method of combining these two teaching approaches was developed.

CHAPTER 4

Research Process, Design and Methodology

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will construct and design action research, in order to enable the learners to improve their reading in a foreign language class. It will present the process of the empirical study I used, and the explanation of my decisions made.

There are three stages to the chapter. The first stage of the empirical study begins with my implementing the lesson plans, and it will reflect on how I turned the notion of CTBL into professional practice in reality. Secondly it will describe how I collected all the data relevant to the study itself. In the final stage, it will explain how I analyzed all relevant data in order to answer the research question, which comes from a teacher's as well as a researcher's perspective. (The 'I' below refers to the researcher of the study. At other points I refer to the teacher, which was also myself, in order to keep the two roles clearly distinguished.)

4.1 Research Questions

In order to better understand students' learning motivation to read with my intervention, the purpose of the research is to answer the following research question:

To what extent does a cooperative task-based learning approach (CTBL), with an emphasis on group work, increase motivation to develop reading skills amongst Taiwanese university students with low achievement levels?

4.2 Educational Research Design and Method

According to Wong (2007:93), "there are various styles of conducting reliable studies, ranging from naturalistic and demographic research, historical research, longitudinal research, experimental research, correlational research, action research, ex post facto research, quasi-experiments and single-case research." Some of the methods cited by Wong (2007) will influence the methods and techniques chosen to investigate data

collection. Those techniques include interview accounts, observation, questionnaires, self-reflection learning diaries or logs, and audio or video records. However, researchers, including myself, often changed the design and methodology while in the process of examining data. Only evidence relevant to the research question would be used in the data analysis because some techniques are more practical and useful than others.

Seeking an appropriate research method for testing the research question might lead to consideration of pure or quasi-experimental studies which are important techniques in the area of language research as they contribute “significantly to our knowledge of language, teaching and use” according to Nunan (1992:49). With regard to investigating reliability and validity of a study, the pure experiment represents that “specially designed to enable the researcher to extrapolate the outcomes of the research from the sample to the broader population” (ibid.).

Brown and Rodgers’ (2002) explanation of pure experiments includes the following crucial features of a ‘true’ experimental educational research in second language (cited in Shi, 2006:102):

1. Students are randomly assigned to two groups
2. Two experimental conditions or treatments are provided
3. For both groups, a pre-test and post-test are given.

However, Brown and Rodgers (2002) further explain that conducting pure experimental research is unlikely to occur in educational situations because human beings are participants, and the scientific model does not easily apply. Therefore, they suggest in the field of education most research is quasi-experiment study, not pure experiment (ibid.). Action research is one such case and can be considered a quasi-experiment.

In my original plan, I intended to develop an experimental design with a control group, but this proved impractical because the sample size was too small (N=19). I changed the study into Action Research and changed the data collection stated in the original plan prior to the practice in class which will be described below. Because this study emphasizes the importance of the development of how CTBL technique motivates students to develop their reading skills through group work, I focused on analyzing students’ self-reflection logs and cooperative learning group sheet, observation notes and interview accounts. I emphasized these data because I wanted to focus on the

process in the classroom rather than the results of proficiency tests or class comprehension quizzes, which measure outcomes rather than the process of motivation.

4.2.1 What is Action Research?

To begin with, action research originated with one of the most important social psychologists, Kurt Lewin (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). In 1948, Lewin developed action research, and further practised it in a sequence of applied experiments, over many years during post-World War Two America (ibid.). There are two crucial ideas developed in Lewin's work: the notion of group decision and obligation to improvement (ibid.). There is an essential characteristic of action research which Kemmis & McTaggart (1988) explain: "those affected by planned changes have the primary responsibility for deciding on courses of critically informed action which seem likely to lead to improvement, and for evaluating the results of strategies tried out in practice" (p.6).

According to Burns (1999:30), 'action research' is "contextual, small-scale and localized - it identifies and investigates problems within a specific situation." As for the objective of action research, Burns (1999) indicates "(it) aims to include a critical dimension which involves reflecting on the social structures and orders which surround classrooms" (p.30). It is worth noting that action research highlights the procedure and design of the study, instead solely focusing on demonstrating the teacher's instruction input and output. For the research outcome, McNiff (1988) recognizes that action research is not always satisfied with the result of the study. That is to say, it is important for teachers as researchers to improve our practical experience in order to find a solution, which it might more clearly see through the problem areas than other ways.

Indeed, this type of research can strengthen teachers' knowledge and skills to best help their students in educational practice. According to Kemmis & McTaggart (1982), action research represents both self-reflective and corporate effort by teaching professionals in a social situation. Furthermore, they state that action research serves as:

a form of collective self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social or educational practices, as well as their understating of these practices and the situations in which these practices are carried out. (Kemmis & McTaggart , 1988:5)

What is more, they consider a group of participants as being composed of students, teachers, parents, principals, and members in the community (i.e. any group with a shared concern) (ibid.). In this collaborative research, it is essential to recognize that the action research of the group is achieved through crucial examination of individual members (ibid.). However, the teaching practitioners in action research seem far more focused on their personal practices close to the reality during the process of curriculum teaching (Burns, 1999). This was the case in this study and other people who serve as principals, parents, and members of the community, seemed not suitable in this case.

The discussion so far can refer to action research in many situations. In educational-situation practice, teaching practitioners have been required to possess full understanding of the development of school-based curriculums and professional programs, improvement of school programs as well as systems planning, and policy development (Burns, 1999). In light of this, action research provides a number of opportunities for teaching practitioners to realize the importance of the improvement in educational practice through the discovery of the problem along with the process of problem solution. Above mentioned definitions of action research suggest many common features among different theorists and researchers (ibid.).

In short, action research represents a reflective teaching approach, which encourages practitioners to think over the hidden questions in educational and/or social situations in practice. By actively practising action research, most practitioners aim to achieve better solutions in helping those who are in need of suitable curriculum education. However, it is likely in any project for educators to experience some limitations in achieving outcome results due to their multiple roles as teachers, observers, participants and researchers (Carr & Kemmis, 1986).

4.2.2 The Participants

The study group at low-intermediate level (C level) was composed of nineteen Taiwanese university students, all attending the required course of English as a foreign language at a university-level institute. All students are allocated to one of three levels – A, B, C - depending on the result of the joint college examination in English as explained in Section 1.0. ‘A’ level is the highest English proficiency level, ‘B’ is one level lower, and ‘C’ group is the lowest level of three. There are no English majors in

these classes. The students are mainly from, for example, Chemistry, Chemical Engineering and Computer Engineering. The case where the action research took place was one C-level class, a total of 19 first-year university students, and the research was designed to ignore foreign language or linguistic departments to avoid the complications of different types of students. The participants were allocated randomly to this class from all the students who were considered to need a C level class as was explained in Section 2.2.1., with the detailed explanation of how the group was formed in the educational/social situation.

4.2.3 The Teacher

Because this was an action research (AR) project, the teacher considers the concept of teacher as researcher as a key in identifying existing common problems (See 2.1-2.2) i.e. the new era of second/foreign language learners at the college level with low motivation to read. Before the AR project, the teacher investigated many teaching approaches which focused on increasing low-achieving students' motivation to read in class. As explained in Chapter 3, a CL technique received a number of merits from international literature reviews and the praise of other associates in the field of teaching foreign/second language, and it became a partial solution in this study. In addition to that, TBLT is seen to be applicable as a process syllabus in teaching a foreign/second language because of several key features, such as authentic data input (i.e. practical learning materials), the purpose of meaningful communicative activities in practice, etc. Two key advantages of practising the TBLT include its effectiveness with language learning (See 3.4.4.1) and its contribution to promoting students' motivation (See 3.4.4.2).

The time period, within which the experimentation took place, was a total of nearly 24 hours over 12 weeks. Before the teacher started teaching in practice, she had a lesson where she tried to help the students get to know each other. There was a two-hour introductory session, aiming to provide an opportunity for all students to get acquainted with one another. All participants were from four classes of three science departments (departments of Computer Engineering, Chemical Engineering, and Chemistry).

The teacher also created as a first lesson the introduction of the cooperative learning method and task-based learning approach to the class. In the first session, five

cooperative learning groups were established. Three or four students depending on the score of GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) formed a group, which was mixed with students gaining both the highest and lowest scores assigned to each group. The other two students in each group had received the mid-score out of the pretest based on the results of GEPT. Before the introductory session ended, team members gathered their groups' ideas about how the team would work together integrating the group work, presenting a group task generated from their own group discussion, and serving within their group rules for the rest of the semester. In the following twelve sessions, each group member was committed to follow the rules they decided.

The duration of each session seemed to take on average approximately 100 minutes or more, which depended on some participants' specific demands or needs after class. It is worth noting the extra given time aimed to help the individual fulfil their personal improvement.

4.2.4 Theme, Learning Materials, Activities and Group Work

Conducting the entire lesson plans and learning activities in this study, the teacher created twelve units as main weekly topics for the students. The learning topics comprised the following themes: geography, food, cartoons, life and living, sports, technology, and business. Generally speaking, each topic helps learners to reflect about their cultural or social experiences in their own environment, such as weather, leisure activity, transportation, cell phones, MP3s, regional food in Taiwan, business letters, etc. Based on TBLT framework within the cooperative setting, members would try to obtain their group or personal goals, and thus were striving to achieve the given tasks set by the teacher in their group work.

At the beginning of the pre-task phase based on the TBLT framework, the teacher would brainstorm students' perception in relation to each lesson topic, and challenge their thinking by asking some relevant questions or talking about the actual situation. At the stage of the first few lessons, the teacher would go through some difficult vocabulary to help learners to search for similar meanings of words on their task sheet. After a few lessons, students in pairs or groups would learn how to distinguish words and mark them in terms of difficulty at three levels: new words, familiar words (repeated words), and words where they recognized meanings. In addition, the teacher

would provide enough time for students to ask and answer questions to one another, before the next stage of the learning process.

During the task cycle phase, each group would receive assigned tasks as well as activity sheets, a list of labor division for each small-group (i.e. learners' responsibilities of small group roles) and a small-group observation sheet (i.e. the observer of each group takes turns weekly to fill out a group question sheet). In addition, team members were assigned small tasks to read and share their notions or opinions while answering comprehension questions on the task sheet. It is worth noting that while time constraints would be applicable in the study group, students would still be trained and allowed a reasonable time limit to complete comprehension questions according to the length of each unit lesson. In the next phase, members would have different small tasks in planning for the presentation or exchanging written reports, and comparing results, at the end of the report stage. During this stage, some members would hear others doing a similar assignment and compare the results and the means by which they did it.

At the post-task stage, the teacher would provide some time for students to examine and discuss specific characteristics of the text. Meanwhile, the teacher would remind students of some new words, useful phrases and sentence patterns occurring in, during or after how to use them. However, several factors intervened in the class preventing her from providing enough time for them. I will discuss the limitation with these problems, because of which the teacher couldn't well control time limit due to the extension of some group discussion (See Chapter 7).

Before the end of the session, students would write their reflections in their learning logs about the lesson they had just completed. The teacher would give them ten minutes or more to write. While they were writing, the teacher would be responsible for calculating the score on the evaluation sheet of each group performance as well as marking the score on students' report records. There will be found enclosed the copy of the evaluation sheet in Appendix 15.

4.3 Data Collection

Despite designing lesson plans, my professional practice turned into private reflection-on-action, particularly in the process of selecting proper data collection, which

stimulated my thinking and my teaching instruction. Indeed, how to select appropriate data input in relation to my research questions and managing data collection was a great challenge and concern for me before, during and after the action research. To answer the question, I cannot agree more with Burns's (1999:151) explanation that: "Action research has the potential to redesign traditional paradigms for data collection, as it becomes mediated by practitioner needs." In terms of selecting proper methodologies, Burns (1999) further indicates that the crucial needs in the educational context will be taken into consideration rather than technical needs and demands once educational research pushes teacher-researchers towards combining both needs in practice and research.

In the following, I am going to present a few ways of reporting on introspective data by uniting the perspectives of students, the teacher as a researcher, and myself as a teacher. By using a few combinations of methods for collecting data, (e.g. written logs and interview accounts), it would remind me of three aspects:

1. How did I collect data? (See 4.3.1)
2. What research technique did I implement to collect data for the study? (See 4.3.2)
3. Why did I use this way to collect and manage relevant data to the study? (See 4.3.3)

Thus, I could reflect on my professional action, which would help me refresh my thoughts with respect to the procedures for collecting all data. All that I designed for data collection has two purposes: to explore how students were motivated through the intervention, and thereby, to answer the research question.

4.3.1 Classroom Procedure

Prior to this study, the teacher gave lectures to the students in the previous academic semester. Toward the semester-end the teacher issued a questionnaire aimed at seeking students' attitudes towards learning English in a cooperative learning setting. The majority of potential participants in the study actively revealed their interests in forming cooperative learning groups in the following semester.

According to students' positive responses to the teacher's demonstration of one session before the formal study for participants, some students perceived group learning activities as increasingly stimulating their interests and attention in English learning.

Some felt that group learning helped their reading skills and language learning efficiency within given time limits; while others would like to learn more from their peers' problem solving strategies within a groups-setting class. Interestingly, the student Jiang revealed that he viewed the future group as a good opportunity to pre-practice and would like to serve as the group leader unless someone else is superior to him in terms of language skills. To him, this practice would be helpful not only to become a better peer learner, but also to promote the notion of corporate reward to the entire group. Jiang in fact took part in the study and he enjoyed the motivational process through the group work in their given tasks.

At the preparation stage for the research project, the teacher collected almost all responses to the survey (one or two students were absent) at the end of the first semester, and immediately conducted the reading study in practice the following semester.

In the first class of the subsequent semester, the teacher initially divided the whole class into two groups, as the teacher originally intended to carry out a pure experiment (see 4.2.2). However, on reflection, the teacher decided it was feasible for her to carry out the action research project, not a pure experiment, as recommended by Nunan (1992) along with Brown and Rodgers (2002) (also see 4.2.2). Therefore, the rest of the thesis was focused on this experimental group.

Nineteen out of thirty-eight students within the entire class were randomly selected and placed into five cooperative learning groups based on their scores of the GEPT test. Team members were equally selected individuals with the highest and the lowest score in each group. They were sorted into different groups by tossing a coin if the teacher could not ascertain some individual scores. Or, participants would be selected by their views with regard to the cooperative learning on the questionnaire, distributed to the students toward the end of the previous semester. If certain students revealed their earnest enthusiasm in this study, the teacher would carefully choose the names of these potential participants and place them in a name list for the research. Then, the teacher would check whether those students who would favour in the study group were on the final name list several times before starting the study. Thus, the teacher finalized the participants name list for a total of nineteen students. The remaining 19 students were taught in a separate class in accordance to existing practices.

The groups in the experimental class were formed in the following way: The five students with the highest scores served as role models within five groups; another five with the lowest scores were randomly distributed to each group. One or two members with medium scores were then assigned to each group.

As indicated above, the teacher conducted the pre-session course (i.e. introductory course) at the beginning of the second semester which aimed to allow students to understand the process of the cooperative learning setting, and provide opportunities to get acquainted with one another through group work. In the course, the main task for groups was to develop and integrate the group's ten commitments in their tasks. There would be an example demonstrated by the teacher during the pre-task phase. Following this, each group member had a different role within their group; also, he or she could support individual efforts to achieve effective outcomes within the time limit under her instruction. Later, each group would produce the group results and at the end each could present these on the stage with their entire group. At the end of the pre-session course, almost every member had enjoyed group work, and thus the groups could more easily achieve their goals at the stage presentation.

At the stage of the formal course for twelve-week sessions, individual students brainstormed and helped other peers' interactions towards the same group task goals within the framework of peer tutoring, not competitive group structures. The teacher made use of the group work sheet (See Appendix 12-16) in order to facilitate group learning by assigning individuals different roles, such as the leader, the observer, the reporter, and the note keeper/timer, etc. This structure is a recommended way to increase students' motivation by helping them develop more positive self-worth images, especially for the second language readers at lower levels. Reynolds (1994), points out that the use of groups in the learning process seems obviously effective, as learning becomes a social process. It is useful to work in groups, as individualistic teaching methods are limited and less beneficial to the learners.

During the period of this study, most students were able to explore the learning process through their reflections in writing self-reflective logs, interviews, and questionnaires. They commonly revealed their improvements in their worksheets in relation to learning reading skills and group interdependence, and commonly reflected positive feedback in stimulating their learning motivation under the teacher's instruction. Reynolds (1994:24)

argues that, “People learn more when they are involved and enjoying themselves.” Under the TBLT framework, exposure, use, and motivation are the key conditions to facilitating language learning in progression (Willis, 1996). In addition, Reynolds (1994) encourages teachers to use activities or games as teaching materials to motivate students to participate actively and to achieve their personal expectation concerning their intellectual minds and affective feelings during playing. In contrast, the limitation in this method is found in that some individuals attain goals while only engaging a group via working towards the same objective for a longer period of time (*ibid.*). The teacher is thus often acting only as a facilitator (Willis, 1996) under the TBLT framework; on the other hand, the learners actively take their parts in learning language within the learning condition.

In summary, the cooperative task-based learning (CTBL) groups weekly language classes carried on whatever tasks had been designed for them, and shared their thoughts, beliefs and values working towards the same goal. Most significant was that students in the classroom worked with one another across different genders, university departments and learning backgrounds. As we shall see later, the majority of students’ reflections expressed their positive interdependence through group work, while others significantly reflected individual accountability while learning how to interact in group discussions. In addition, the group oral presentation or written reports presented their togetherness in their field-notes or logs, and to some extent they also had fun in sharing their experiences while completing their tasks under class time limits and despite communicative difficulties.

Overall, only a few students faced difficulties in listening to the teacher’s instruction in English. Data from interviews, self-reflective logs as well as various different group worksheets have shown that some respondents preferred the teacher to use the students’ native language to instruct prior to the given tasks, or that they at least translated the learning procedures into their native languages after using the target language in their future classes. In addition to that, others expressed a wish that the teacher would slow down the pace in speaking English when she taught the class. This situation existed because some students perceived their listening comprehension skills to be less improved than their reading skills within the reading focused class. More specific details will be provided in the relevant chapter (See Chapter 7).

4.3.1.1 Data Collection and Chronology

The following table, as shown in 4.1, presents detailed time frames for the procedures of data collection:

Table 4.1 Time Frames for Data Collection Procedures

Time Frame/ Date	Stage	Actions for Data Collection	Research Instruments/ Technique
27.12.'05	Stage I Preparation Phrase	1. Collecting views about cooperative learning technique on the open-ended questionnaire with the entire class of students in XX University to be held towards the end of the first semester in 2005.	Informal open-ended Questionnaire Sample 1(Appendix 4)
10.03'06 to 14.03'06	Stage II Preparation for the main study	1. Oral informed consent from the personnel of the department and participants in the university. Written informed consent was also received from the pre-session of the study.	Informed consent (Appendix 5)
01.02 '06 to 31.03 '06		2. Literature search/ review and modification of the teaching lesson plans	Lesson Sample 1, sample 1 lesson plan and sample 1 lesson plan (Appendix 6-7)
Collection of pretest results on 14.03'06		3. Collection of pupils' pre-test results, and help make students aware of their current reading proficiency. Also the results serves as a grouping technique when the teacher divides the whole study group into five small groups.	Pre-test (GEPT) Sample 1(Appendix 8)
Pre-session Course on 21.03'06		4. In-class observation for the pre-session course.	

	Stage III	1. Instruction for 12 Lesson units on a weekly basis. The teacher also wrote the self-reflective field notes each week.	Teacher's self-reflective Sample 1 (Appendix 18)
22.03'06 to 06.06'06	CTBL Sessions for 12 weeks	2. Collection of in-class observation from week 1 to week 12.	Observation Log Sample 1 (Appendix 19)
		3. Collection of Students' self-reflective weekly individual logs (i.e. In-class notes collected weekly). The first students' form for reflection for the first 4 weeks is shown in Appendix 10; the latter form for the rest of weeks in Appendix 11	Students' self-reflective weekly logs for the first 4 weeks self-reflective weekly logs (Appendix 10) and the rest 8 weeks (Appendix 11)
20.05'06 to 04.06'06		4. Collection of students' group worksheets in weekly class. There are several different worksheets, including Small-Group Observation Sheets which function as reporting an individual's behaviour or group performance of all members by student observer of each group (See Appendix 12). The list of small-group labour division serves as a reminder of each member's role(s) in group work (See Appendix 13). In addition, cooperative learning self-evaluation sheet (See Appendix 14) serves to help all participants to measure individuals' performance and progression during each reading session in cooperative learning groups. The evaluation sheet of group performance serves to record scores on how the group performs in each area of group sessions (See Appendix 15). In addition, interactive worksheet of dialogue with cartoons (See Appendix 16).	Group worksheet (e.g. small-Group observation sheet, list of small-group labour division, cooperative learning self-evaluation sheet, evaluation sheet of group performance, and interactive worksheet of dialogue with cartoons). (See Appendix from 12 to 16).

Collection of posttest results on 08.06'06	CTBL Sessions for 12 weeks	<p>5. Semi-structured interviews with 8 respondents over 2 weeks, from week 11 to week 12, toward the end of the second semester. Interviews with 8 respondents, including 4 individuals and 2 pairs in the same group. All interview accounts have been transcribed and translated.</p> <p>6. Review audio and videotape records (i.e. I looked at weekly class session videotapes once a week.)</p> <p>7. Post-test of GEPT exam for students after 12 sessions. This however, was not to be expected in the short time for participants to have any measurable change Therefore, I only focused on the learning process in this study, not the test results.</p>	<p>Semi-structured Interview accounts Sample 1 (See Appendix 17)</p> <p>Audio & Videotape Recordings</p> <p>Post-test (GEPT exam) (See Appendix 9)</p>
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4.3.2 Research Techniques for Data Collection

4.3.2.1 Individual and Focus Group Interview

Semi-structured interviews

The study employed a semi-structured interview technique. A total of eight informants were scheduled to participate, including two people from each of groups M and C, and four individuals. This took place over 2 weeks, from week 11 to week 12, toward the end of the second semester. The interview accounts are enclosed in the Appendices (See Appendix 17).

Each interview session took approximately 30 minutes and I had made questions that were of particular interest to the students. Before interviewing, informants were reminded that they would be tape-recorded, which would remain absolutely confidential. All questions are focused on students' efforts to achieve some improvement in English reading by using the new strategy to motivate them. Therefore, the questions were directly related to their learning process and to comparing the difference before and

after the study. In so doing, most questions seemed likely to produce free answers from those who had attended the class.

Most interviews were a dialogue to start with, which was aimed to help some students feel less anxious and gain a sense of confidence to talk about their learning process over the twelve-week experimental study. The explanation for using the semi-structured interviews is indicated by Burns (1999) as follows:

The semi-structured interview differs from the structured interview in that it is open-ended and thus provides much greater flexibility. In the semi-structured interview, the action researcher generally used prepared guide questions or alternatively has some overall directions in mind... In addition, it allows for the emergence of themes and topics which may not have been anticipated when the investigation began (Burns, 1999:120).

Apart from that, another advantage gained by the use of ‘focus group interviewing’ (also called ‘group interview’) is to enable the researcher to save relative time for data collection (Watts and Ebbutt 1987). Indeed, it also takes a shorter period of time to interview groups compared with other techniques. In addition, the use of group interviews would be less difficult, which would make good use of the data (Morgan, 1988).

The aim of the interviews of two pair groups was to see the interaction through the dialogue of members. I cannot agree more with Morgan’s (1988:9-10) view that focus groups interviews would expect to receive two key results, “the groups’ interaction and the alternation between interviewer’s questions and interviewee’ responses.” However, interviews either individual- or group-based with objective questions need to be concerned with the clarification of the learning contexts as well as experience and background with the respondents after the completion of the informant’s narration (Rudestan & Newton, 2001).

All interviews were conducted in respondents’ first language to answer the researcher’s questions. In particular, the researcher selected most data from their interviews in order to get more students’ views, in particular in relation to their developing and improving reading skills. By providing their genuine and actual voice, the study therefore truly demonstrates the respondents’ perspective towards assessment of achievement (Anderson, 2000; Nunan, 1988).

4.3.2.2 Self-Reflective Logs

Here is one of the most important data collection techniques for this research. Amongst many different terms which are used to apply basic process, Wallace (1998: 59) points out: “field-notes and logs are terms used to describe what has happened during a lesson, and may be written up during the lesson or shortly after.” He further distinguishes between field-notes and logs. The latter seem ‘more highly structured’ than field-notes (ibid., p.59). In contrast to diaries or journals, Burns (1999: 89) well explained that “diaries or journals are an alternative to field notes, or a supplement, if time permits.” As to the value of this kind of log, Wallace (1998) indicates that it would act as reflective analysis of the reasons traced back to key changes on the time-line. This also serves as a technique of observation (ibid.). In this study, there are three different perspectives in keeping records of self-reflective logs: the students, the teacher, and the research assistant (RA) observer.

The act of writing notes means more than documenting records of data, which provides the area of research as being first analysis and then further refined (Burns, 1999). As Burns (1999) points out, there are various ways to collect data for observational note-making. Also, it required extra time during or after teaching from the teacher as researcher, which the researcher would apply in flexible ways to document and analyze issues and topics relevant to research questions and objectives (ibid). The best way to document observation records can be described as “relatively informally at suitable intervals during the lesson through ‘jottings’ or stream-of-behaviour records made on the spot as the lessons proceed” (Burns, 1999: 85). Burns (1999:87) argues that two advantages of the combination of observational and note-making techniques are: 1. identify emerging classroom patterns and themes; 2. Clarify the issues that are central to the classroom investigation.

I called all the notes ‘Self-reflective logs.’ and it was specified that all written format was to be time-efficient and clear for others to read. For the function of research records, I agree with Wallace (1998:59) with the notion of keeping field notes on site, “It can be kept in a highly-structured way, following a particular format.” In the following, I will specify the different written formats and field notes amongst students, the researcher, and the teacher.

1. The Students:

At the end of each class students would be asked to write their feedback response to each learning session, and I would keep their logs to see how they reflected on each reading course through group work. Students' responses would allow me to improve my teaching in certain ways. The method of keeping students' logs also enabled participants to make good use of their time on the course, and encouraged them to share their learning process with the teacher, or possibly with each other (Wallace, 1998). The most important thing is to assist students not only to reflect on their learning of the reading process, but also to gain their valuable insights into their learning experiences (Burns, 1999).

Particularly in the first four weeks, students' logs within the group-setting generally provided only shallow information – though there was a sample written format for students to understand how to write (See Appendix 10). All reflection from students was used to make preliminary analysis about their brief personal thoughts. In order to obtain more in-depth self-reflection regarding what they had learned, with particular relation to improving students' reading skills, there were some questions focused on their motivation and applied specific study skills (i.e. reading skills). In light of this, learned specific skills in class could be obtained after week four in their self-reflective logs because I revised the first format slightly.

However, some of the students' logs presented a mixture of the first language and the target language and it is not easy to translate their original views because of the mixture of languages and ungrammatical sentences, so the researcher read and corrected sentences by using the '()' for the purpose of data analysis in chapter 6. In so doing, it helps the readers to better understand what students meant and wanted to express from what they perceived in the class. The readers could find a sample of it (See chapter 6).

2. The Teacher

Before each session, the teacher would do her best to memorize key points from the lesson plan in order to keep control of students' understanding and learning efforts in practice. During group processes in class, the teacher quickly took some notes of what the teacher felt, as key introspective written data. After class, the teacher would explore

her thoughts while reviewing her field notes and the teacher also emphasized writing down the action she took to answer students' puzzles or questions, particularly in the areas of motivating students' group work or reading instruction. Also, the teacher would review and keep them as personal weekly self-reflective logs. These would be a sample of written formats for her self-reflection (See Appendix 18)

3. The Researcher

In order to investigate the effects of teaching and learning in the language classroom, I also acted as a researcher to explore the classroom process throughout by watching the audio and videotape recordings after each session. The technique of keeping researcher field notes or logs in action research was designed to assist the teacher as researcher to provide insightful information with respect to issues and concerns arising through observation. Indeed, the investigation is designed to help the research project for me to probe the effects of the teacher's instruction. In the Appendices is provided a sample of the format (See Appendix 19).

4.3.2.3 Audiotape and Videotape Records of Lessons

Audio and video recording serves as another key technique of the study. Because of the naturalistic character of recordings taken within the classroom, they provide valuable information on actual class activity (Burns, 1999).

In the study, there were two non-participant students valuable to the research project as technicians, who came to monitor and videotape our CTBL class, but they did not often attend our weekly sessions. Zhong and Ming were two third-year university students in the same university, who operated audio and video recordings for me during the fieldwork. Both majored in news broadcasting and mass media, and were experienced in video and audio recording. That was the reason I hired them to be included in my study project during their break between classes. They took turns to come to my classroom for the paid part-time weekly job. They were valuable in assisting me to record how I taught through the process during the 12-week session with the help of the tools borrowed from the university.

However, class audio and video recordings also drew my attention to concerns in this study. As Burns (1999:95) has indicated, it is likely to see video recording techniques as creating “more ethical problems than audio recording...Participants can be easily identified and this may cause embarrassment as well as breach confidentiality in reporting the research.” For this reason, I carefully kept all records private in order to prevent participants’ confidentiality rights from being breached while using them.

Speaking of students’ participation in the research process, Burns (1999) points out that video recording can provide more valuable input for participants’ interaction in support of both visual and oral functions. In contrast, Kemmis & McTaggart (1988) claimed that its usefulness is increased once commentary (e.g. diary entries) is added. Video recordings might distract participants during the learning processes (*ibid.*). I would discover that similar problems existed in the classroom and this confirmed the notion of these researchers. But I couldn’t deny that this technique implemented in the class also provided a mixture of actual interaction and regular behaviour of participants in the educational context (*ibid.*).

The following are some benefits of using video and audio techniques for reflection in action research to record research discussions. Burns (1999, p.98) makes clear a few benefits to teachers’ options while reviewing recorded meeting discussions as follows:

1. Focus their topics for research
2. Provide additional input into note-taking or journal-writing
3. Further their individual or collective thinking on research themes
4. Review the discussion contribution they made from a more objective stance.
5. Revise and reflect further on accounts of teacher’s own and/or other teachers’ actions or interpretations.

4.3.2.4 Observation

Observation refers to “the sense of taking regular and conscious notice of classroom actions and occurrences which are particularly relevant to the issues or topics being investigated” (Burns, 1999: 80). It also enables researchers to gain personal insights on classroom interactions or sequences and search useful information in support of explanation to answer research questions (*ibid.*). Indeed, observation is of great help to

action research, as it reflects actual occurrences on the course through the eyes of researchers. As Burns (1999:81-2) has indicated, the great strength of this method “is the new perspectives they offer on familiar situations...Observation allows us to see in a relatively unobtrusive way what it is that people actually do compared with what they say they do.”

As indicated above, this study is an action research project. I acted not only as the teacher, but I also served as an observer in it. In so doing, it provided me with an additional opportunity to monitor my own practice, and improve my instruction, including body language, classroom language and mutual interaction with students while I watched the videotape of each session.

What is more, according to Burns’ (1999:82) non-participant observation refers to “watching and recording without personal involvement in the research contexts.” Here its purpose is to create an observer with little or no contact with the subjects of the research: using another teacher or observer serves as a good way to obtain extra feedback as key information. However, in this case it’s impossible in the study due to other teachers teaching their classes during the same hours I chose weekly. Also, there was no volunteer teacher or formal researcher willing to be involved in this study. However, Zen at the beginning of the semester volunteered to look at weekly videotape. He attended our university and was an American born Chinese with perfect English language to observe this CTBL class with me. Indeed, his involvement in the project served as a good way to get extra data in the action research project. In so doing, he would provide the teacher with some critiques to develop her own professional competence through his observations from watching the video recording weekly.

For example, the teacher was able to change her speed and use both languages (e.g. Mandarin and English) to satisfy the needs of most students with insufficient English listening skills, as a result of his logs. Zen also kept his log and provided data for the teacher on a weekly basis. In so doing, this log was regarded as one of key sources amongst all data collection. Indeed, his input not only increased the teacher’s confidence in performing classroom language and interaction with all students, but it also provided her with more insight into things that she had ignored or neglected in class. She would regard his participation and contribution as that of a researcher in this study.

4.3.2.5 Other data related to the study

Pre-test and Post-test

I implemented the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) as the pre-test and post-test. GEPT is a test of English language proficiency, which Taiwan's Ministry of Education has appointed as an official test since 2002. Four levels of the test currently have been administered; they are: elementary, intermediate, high-intermediate, and advanced. There are two stages of each level of the test: the first stage is reading and listening; the second stage is speaking and writing. Generally speaking, test takers have to pass the first stage examination before the second one takes place.

The reason I used only the GEPT intermediate level for reading in the study is that it is viewed as appropriate for high school graduates or university first-year students to read, particularly the participants of the study. It also serves as an indicator, which helped the teacher determine the grouping of all participants to one of the five cooperative learning groups, according to their scores of the pre-test.

After the results from the participants from the pre-test were received, the description of how I placed nineteen students into five cooperative groups based on their scores is in the previous section of the procedure for data collection (See 4.3.1). It is worth noting that I carried out a GEPT test with different content but at the same level (intermediate) for students at week 12. I collected results of the second test near the 12-week interval which showed the students' test scores after the study. Appendix 8 shows one sample from the pre-test; Appendix 9 presents a sample from the post-test.

However, there were some mistakes made in the post-test due to carelessness in informing supervisors of a new test format: I added an extra eight reading comprehension questions in the post-test for students to get bonus scores once the participants had completed the standard test with only forty questions. In so doing, this helped the teacher measure extra bonus scores based on students' post test results. However, I did not use these results to see if there was any measurable change in terms of reading focus. During a short period of time for the use of CTBL strategy, there was not likely to have been any measurable change for this particular study group. However, the outcome of the study helped me only focus on the process of this study, not the



input and output from the tests. Also, there is no empirical evidence from any objective test to prove this point of improving learners' reading skills.

Group worksheet

The data collection instruments used in the study included a small-group observation sheet, a list of small-group labour division, and a cooperative learning self-evaluation sheet. They were used for different functions during the process of group work. For example, the small-group observation sheet functioned as a report of individuals' behaviour or group performance of all members by the student observer of each group (every one of the team takes a turn weekly) (See Appendix 12). The list of small-group labour division served as a reminder of each member's role(s) in group work (See Appendix 13); this is not strictly speaking a means of collecting data but is included to explain how the class was organised.

In addition, the cooperative learning self-evaluation sheet was to help all participants measure their individual performance and progression (See Appendix 14). Apart from that, the evaluation sheet of group performance was to assist me in recording scores on how the group performs in each area of group sessions (See Appendix 15). Other worksheets, like the interactive worksheet of dialogue with cartoons, are also a useful source to help members to appreciate the most contributing person in the group. This serves as a useful source to help me understand each group processing and group dynamic through peer interaction (Copies in appendix 16). Again this is not a means of collecting research data but is included to show what the classroom processes included.

Other relevant sheets such as the 'role assignments and job description' act as a guideline of how to answer the labour sheet for group members. In particular, role-assignment tasks for each member in the group context are a key characteristic distinguishing cooperative learning from regular group learning. Role-assignment for each group member with designation and rotation can enhance the role for each member, and avoid complaints of overloading for certain members, in particular high achievers. The job description of each role on the list was explained clearly for the students. Each student had to rotate the roles weekly by means of the reminders from me. In Table 4.2, there is a copy of the job description adapted from Kagan (1989).

Table 4.2 *Role Assignments and Job Description* (Adapted from Kagan, 1989)

Role	Job Description
Leader	The leader is the chairperson who hosts the group discussion and makes sure that each member is on task by participating in the discussion or any given task.
Reporter	The reporter is responsible for reporting the summary of his/her group's discussion to the class on behalf of his/her team.
Recorder	The recorder needs to take notes during the discussion. The written report will be given to the reporter.
Timer	The timer controls the time given to their group and makes sure that the assigned task is completed on time. If there is not enough time to complete the task, the timer has to request more time from the teacher.

Questionnaire

The open-ended questionnaire near the end of the first semester received students' responses by asking their opinions on whether they were willing to accept new teaching methods such as cooperative learning, before introducing the study in the following semester. It acted as a trial survey, not the true research technique in the study. Its main purpose was to better understand how students view cooperative learning approach and how they respond to it, particularly after one session used in the first semester class. The overall reflection from the majority of students expressed positive feedback and a wish to include them in the following semester study. A copy of the questionnaire is shown in an appendix 4.

4.3.3 Triangulation

This was an essential step before I took further action regarding data analysis of this study and this action was necessary to establish credible data and to enhance trustworthiness of the study.

4.3.3.1 Triangulation for Data Collection of The Study

In gathering different aspects and using more data techniques, Burns (1999) opines that action researchers ought to avoid only using one method as this is likely to result in a

more subjective picture. She states that the results of data so collected are not likely to be impartial. Cohen and Manion (1994) have similar views, saying that understanding a part of a complex social situation through the use of only one method is unlikely.

The purpose of triangulation is to elicit results from diverse sources, such as different methods, techniques, theories, and/or investigators, in order to enhance trustworthiness of my research. As Burns (1999:162) has indicated, triangulation “is to test to the trustworthiness of our data and to encourage ongoing reflection on them as part of the process of data analysis.” Regarding ‘triangulation’ Lincoln & Guba say that (1985:283):

As the study unfolds and particular pieces of information come to light, steps should be taken to validate each against at least one other source (for example, a second interview) and/or a second method (for example, an observation in addition to an interview). No single item of information (unless coming from an elite and unimpeachable source) should ever be given serious consideration unless it can be triangulated.

Indeed, triangulation is seen as one of the most essential ways for checking the validity of research (Burns, 1999). It aims to collect various different perspectives in different situations by qualitative researchers (Burns, 1999). Miles and Huberman (1994:266) suggest that triangulation:

...is supposed to support a finding by showing that independent measures of it agree with it or, at least, do not contradict it.

Amongst abundant research books, four types of triangulation can be found as suggested by Denzin’s (1978) classic distinctions in Miles and Hurberman (1994:267):

...triangulation by data source (which can include persons, times, places etc), by method (observation, interview document), by researcher (investigator A, B, etc.), and by theory. To this we can add data type (qualitative text, recordings, quantitative).

Denzin’s (1978) four types of triangulation are well established with methodological triangulation being identified as the most prevalent and applicable approach of all. Seale (1999:54) further indicates Denzin’s (1978) view with regard to this point:

This (methodological triangulation), for Denzin, ideally involves a ‘between-method’ approach, which can take several forms but, classically, might be illustrated by a combination of ethnographic observation with interviews. Additionally, methodological triangulation is frequently cited as a rationale for mixing qualitative and quantitative methods in a study. (Seale, 1999:54)

These researchers’ inputs support the rationale of my research methods. See 4.3.2.1-4.3.2.5 regarding different techniques I applied when monitoring data collection in this study.

Therefore, what can we expect from triangulation of this research? As Greene et al., (1989) have indicated we may obtain verification within the range of a ‘confidence interval’ out of such findings and perhaps we might only obtain “reliability,” not totally valid information, as Mathison (1988) indicated (both researchers cited in Miles and Hurberman, 1994). The worst scenario would be if our diverse sources were contradictory or incompatible with one another (Miles and Hurberman, 1994).

4.3.3.2 Triangulation of Data Collection

In the following I will present the triangulations in my study. In their qualitative study, Carvalho et al. (2003, p.10) point out in ‘grounded theory values triangulation’ that accurate triangulation for data collection has been shown to require more than one source of evidence and thus not concentrate solely on one area (ibid.). My aim is thus to collect data and investigate results in order to see whether they are similar to one another (See Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 *Triangulation of Data Collection*

<i>Data Collection</i>	<i>Participants (Students)</i>	<i>Researcher (I) and others</i>	<i>Observer(I)</i>
The fieldwork through CTBL approach in	Self-reflective logs Small-Group Observation Sheet List of Small-Group Labour Division Semi-structure Interviews Audio and Videotape Records Group worksheet Pre-test (GEPT) Post-test(GEPT) Evaluation Sheet of Group Performance Cooperative learning self-evaluation sheet	Self-reflective log Evaluation Sheet of Group Performance	Observation logs Audio & Video- tape records class

All audiotape data was transcribed. All techniques and methods, including interview accounts and most group sheet, are enclosed in the Appendices.

4.4 General Procedures for Data Analysis

Burns (1999: 153) indicates that data analysis “involves describing (the ‘what’ of the research) and explaining (the ‘why’ of the research).” Here I aim to systematically present the procedures for data analysis. I then will provide the detailed descriptions of the data analysis in Chapters Five and Six.

As a researcher I draw upon all respondents’ accounts: students’ and the teacher’s field notes as well as logs, informants’ interviews and other related group worksheets. For example, I will report, in Chapter 5, the perspective of the teacher as to how the lessons were taught and how she could have an impact on all participants. I will then show a qualitative account from the teacher’s field notes and describe the relationship between the teacher and the milieu of the teaching context, particularly in reporting the teacher’s perceived impact on the CTBL teaching approach. Initial analysis of both the teacher’s logs and observation notes mainly sought existing patterns derived from the data. Furthermore, the categories and subcategories of all data are analyzed in the stage from the teacher’s logs and observation notes.

In addition, a three-phase coding system, including open, axial, and selective coding as pointed out in the work of Strauss and Corbin (1990), will be used to present the interactions amongst the participants. It is because during the research process such interactions will be interrelated on varying levels and one single coding method will not be sufficient to indicate the complexities of these interactions. In light of the research, the three-phase coding system has been used when analyzing codes for interview accounts along with other related written documents.

4.4.1 Modes of Data Analysis for the Study

Modes of analysis

In this study, I mainly focus on the qualitative method and the grounded theory research approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), which will be applied to the analysis of the data. All relevant sources for data analysis include self-reflective logs, related observation group sheets, and interview accounts. It is expected that a number of diverse variables will have affected members' motivation through the intervention of the CTBL approach. This will be defined and analyzed in Chapter 6, the perspective of the students. Though there was a pre-test and a post-test in the study, they were not designed to answer the research question. Also, they cannot be expected to show any measurable results.

4.4.2 Analyzing content

Carr and Kemmis (1986:162) quoted in Burns (1999:153-4) state:

Action research is simply a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understanding of these practices, and the situation in which these practices are carried out.

As these researchers (ibid.) emphasize in the beginning of the process, it is crucial for the researcher to start with answering the research questions. The most important thing during the process of data analysis is that constant checks are carried out to ascertain whether it is the data, not the researcher's intuitions or assumptions (Burns 1999). Because of the findings that are derived from the evidence of the data, it is useful and meaningful for the researcher to assert the statements which result from the research outcomes (ibid.).

Here is how I started with the process of data analysis in Chapter 6:

1. Examination of models of motivation and a decision to focus on Tremblay and Gardner, as explained in Chapter 3;
2. Development of a postulated model adding to Gardner with variables from the experiment such as group work and task-based learning;
3. Examination of the data to see if it fits this model – and modification of the model – in the light of the data;
4. Presentation of the data according to (a part of) the model (See Figure 6.2 or 6.3), i.e. the part for which there is data from the action research.

The figure in 6.1 presents causal links amongst possible motivational variables emerging from all data, and once the analysis has been completed it will be possible to consider implications for future reading courses and methods of teaching reading.

Furthermore, the findings in Chapter 6 will record particular perceptions of all students in the study. It also will draw a postulated model in Chapter 6 in more detail, identifying variables and the causal relations, which may lead to heightening students' motivation levels concerning learning to read English through the CTBL approach. In order to make the model useful for describing the most effective CTBL approach, several essential variables will be presented.

I applied this pedagogy, CTBL, based on a model of motivation for students with low achievement levels. These variables are considered to be motivating factors for second language students learning to read in a second or foreign language. In drawing conclusions from this model I will refer to the theorizing model based on Gardner and Tremblay's (1995) work.

4.4.3 Translation

It is worth noting that self-reflective notes as well as logs, and other observation group worksheets or group task sheets were composed in a mixture of Chinese and English. Most students who had lower level writing ability would reflect their feelings in their original handwriting in Chinese. With a view to encouraging students' writing, I would not limit students' written language in their original scripts.

As for interview accounts, respondents' first language, Chinese, acted as the particular language to help them feel free to talk while being interviewed individually or in a group. All interview accounts were translated from digital audio recordings, which students were informed of before the interviews.

During the stage of translating the mixture of languages into an English version, I would double check the English version to reflect what the students wanted to say in the target language. In so doing, all descriptions of the entire data analysis fully demonstrated in Chapter Five and Six, would be related to what was expressed in the English version.

Another challenge for me was that students' constantly used a mixture of 'I' and 'We' in their personal logs and group worksheets. Sometimes it was not easy for me to distinguish whether 'we' could refer to the categories of 'group efficacy' or 'self-efficacy' in the study. In order to better understand and accurately analyze what the students referred to, I constantly checked the statements in the context of the original passage. Also, I discussed with the supervisors for the best results when I had doubts about it. My supervisors encouraged me to identify the frequencies and the occasions of students' thoughts. In so doing, it did indeed allow me to find the main thread of the puzzles in students' scripts, particularly in relation to students' handwriting combined with mixtures of both languages and also of subject.

4.4.4 A timeline for the Data Analysis of the study

Below Table 4.4 presents the timeline for the data analysis in the study.

Table 4.4 *A timeline for the data analysis of the study*

Timeframe/ Date	Stage	What to do
01July 2006 to 30 th Oct 2006	Stage I Data Entry	Methodology→ phase 1: 1) Data entry and initial processing of the data collected. Tentative analysis begins.
01 Nov 2006 to 15 th Feb 2007	Stage II Analysis of Data	Methodology→ phase 2: 1) Analysis to identify the changes in students, and to identify those factors or variables through the intervention of CTBL approach, which caused the differential changes on students' motivation to read in cooperative group settings. 2) The postulated model of CTBL approach to increase students' motivation to read is established. The first complete write-up of findings. 3) Analysis continues.
30 th June 2007	Stage III Validation for Data Analysis	Methodology→ phase 3: 1) Second complete write-up of findings after the interval of 4 months. 2) The aim is to examine validation of the data results. The development of literature analysis reviews and the research design processing. 3) To investigate the dependability and credibility for this action research.

4.5 Trustworthiness in the Analysis of Qualitative Data

It is crucial for any researcher to confirm the findings of the study in relation to both validity and reliability of the research. According to Miles & Huberman (1984), 'reliability' refers to dependability, consistency, and stability of the research project to ensure the results are stable over time across research methods. One of the most common problems of qualitative methods in the test of reliability is seen as a skewed data base and a biased finding (Fang, 2005). To avoid this problem, it is worth reviewing a whole range of presentations of the data.

On the other hand, validity requires consideration of both internal and external verifications (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Basically, internal validity is one of the key features of the data collection process, data presentation, and research findings. It ensures that the methods of data collected are consistently systematic and the findings can be reasoned by the readers (Fang, 2007). External validity refers to “the extent to which causal hold true in other settings, an aspect of the generalizability of findings” (Seale, 1999:40).

Particularly in this study, any qualitative method attempts to understand the actual ‘soft’ data by in-depth exploration and triangulation as described above (Bolden, 2006). Some researchers tend to use the term of credibility rather than validity of qualitative method (ibid.). In the end, they all attempt to enhance the quality of the research in different ways.

Mertens (1998 cited in Timothy, 2004) clearly pinpoints validity and reliability in qualitative research as it refers to credibility and dependability. ‘Credibility’ is defined as “the correspondence between the respondents’ perceptions of social constructs and the researcher’s portrayal of their viewpoints” (Timothy, 2004:76). In contrast, dependability refers to “stability of results over time” (ibid.). That is to say, it concerns the truth raised in the data and the trustworthiness of results emergent from the study. What is more, the researcher acts as a key person to thoroughly explain and trace back the data (ibid.). However, there is still debate about the use of the terms ‘credibility’ and ‘dependability’ to enhance the quality of the study. Lincoln & Guba (1985:328) suggest “the audit trail” for establishing trustworthiness of dependability. Here it is crucial to distinguish the function and difference in the study between credibility and dependability.

The term ‘trustworthiness’ is thus the over-arching term to include the terms of credibility and dependability. There are five main techniques underlying the concept of trustworthiness suggested by Lincoln & Guba (1985: 328), as given in table 4.5.

These authors set out a list of five credibility criteria that they see as the best for establishing trustworthiness. The above-indicated key techniques require informants to be asked and to provide answers to the right questions, so that they can provide the appropriate information to the researcher. In addition, the concepts which the

informants actually hold need to be profiled in order to increase the trustworthiness analysis of the research.

Table 4.5 *Five Major Techniques underlying the Concept of Trustworthiness*
Suggested by Lincoln & Guba (1985)

No.	<i>Five Main Techniques</i>
1	Activities in the field that increase the probability of high credibility: A. prolonged engagement B. persistent observation C. triangulation (sources, methods, and investigators)
2	Peer debriefing
3	Negative case analysis
4	Referential adequacy
5	Member checks (in process and terminal)

To report the enhanced trustworthiness of the study, I carried out the following: with reference to the above list

1A. It is not suitable for this case because it refers to fieldwork where the researcher would need to live in the country for years.

1B. In observation: this is a process of nearly three-months of weekly empirical study. I acted not only as the teacher but I also served as a participant in the study: namely the observer. However, I also implemented the concept of ‘non-participant’ observation (See 4.3.2.4) indicated by Burns (1999) to provide extra feedback or data to include in it. For example, two university students in news and mass media majors and one RA (research assistant) student, Zen, took part in the project. The former two students were responsible for recording the videotape of each session whereas the latter one served as a ‘non-participant’ observer to speculate on the progress of the class via looking at the videotapes. In so doing, I would ensure that the project received increased open in-depth observation through a cross-reference, and not solely via the researcher’s observation.

1C. Triangulation was used in the study to retain its trustworthiness and prevent errors or misperception in the action project, as explained earlier.

Furthermore care was taken with the process of data collection:

Before the interview, I assured the respondents that I would keep all their accounts confidential. I also gave my word to them that the transcription of the interview accounts would be done on my own. This would ensure that the voice of the interviewee would not be recognized by others

In interview: questions of the semi-structured interview were carefully selected. I ensure that students could be understood and that they sufficiently understood the necessary data before asking the next question. For example, I would keep eye contact with the interviewee and see whether students truly understood what to answer to each question. The purpose of this was to reduce mistaken responses. If I saw they had difficulty in answering, I'd paraphrase the wording of the original question. In addition, I would also pay attention to students' gestures, including delaying the response or remaining silent etc.

In interview: keep both genders of interviewee open-minded to answer the questions being asked. Though they were allowed to answer pre-set questions in the interview, they could disclose whatever information they felt were fitting in the topics. Particularly in the final stage after all questions had been asked, they were allowed to ask any questions they wished. In so doing, the informants would speak their mind freely.

In interview: the use of focus groups (i.e. two pair-interviews) aimed to understand the dynamic and interplay amongst its members. In particular, I appreciated when some individuals when one of them had different or new answers occurring in response to the same question.

For the transcription of the interviews, all were written out to let the readers verify that they were accurate. Apart from that, I also translated the entire transcription from Chinese into English. This aims to enhance the stability of all results. The entire transcriptions are enclosed with the thesis (See Appendix 17)

In Students' logs: I found the handwriting of many students in their self-reflective logs to be a mixture of both Chinese and English. I read the logs many times to eliminate errors in translation and also asked supervisors for their professional expertise, particularly in key citations, for their objective points of view. As a result, attempts were made to reduce unclear expressions and wordings when I could not find the exact word in English to refer to the Chinese. Thus, it could reduce misunderstandings created by the restrictiveness of my point of view.

After the first completion of the findings, I redid the data analysis of the study after an interval of four months. In order to retain the stability of findings over time, I would carefully find the differences and similarities in the data results between two periods of time.

I mainly implemented the major techniques covered in number one of the five techniques suggested by Lincoln & Cuba (1985) in the study so that it would make sense to the readers. However, the rest of the techniques were not appropriate to be used in the study.

4.6 Ethical issues and Informed Consent

It is worth stating the necessity of researchers to take account of any ethical issues while carrying out the research. In particular, social researchers ought to take into consideration that the research not only protects the rights of the participants, but it also respects their dignity. According to Cavan (1997), ethics is defined as:

... a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others. Being ethical limits the choices we can make in the pursuit of truth. Ethics say that while truth is good, respect for human dignity is better, even if, in the extreme case, the respect of human nature leaves one ignorant of human nature (Cavan, 1977 cited in Cohen & Manion, 1994: 359).

As researchers and teachers, it is essential for us to bear in mind these issues with respect to upholding human rights and to being concerned with ethical issues.

Informed consent

According to Diener and Crandall (1978 cited in Cohen & Manion, 1994: 350), informed consent refers to “the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions.” Four components are involved in this definition: competence, voluntarism, full information, and comprehension (Cohen & Manion, 1994). They further indicate that the rights of participants have been taken into consideration if the researchers can bear in mind these four components prior to the actual study (ibid).

The teacher as the researcher has the authority to inform her students of how to join the study group in the class, but she also allows her students not to take part in the study if someone does refuse. All results from students proved positive. That is to say, the students, as the participants of the study, all accepted the experiment. In addition, the researcher had also taken students into account when some did not attend the first introductory session. It was also the researcher’s responsibility to provide informed consent in the following session if some students missed the orientation class. In light of this, the researcher received all informed consent from students.

4.7 Summary

This chapter has demonstrated all key features of the research design and the procedure of the research methods applicable in the study. Data analysis is a crucial aspect of the role of teacher as researcher enabling me to reflect on action research

Three aspects for data collection have been identified: 1. data collecting procedure; 2. techniques for data collection; 3. data collecting management. In addition to techniques for monitoring data collection in this action research, I used data methodological triangulation, as discussed.

In addition, methods for data analysis of the study have been explained and the way in which existing theory was used. There has been a clear explanation of the trustworthiness of the study. Ethical issues were also addressed.

The Teacher’s perception with reference to the implementation of CTBL strategy will be probed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

Teacher's Perspective

Teacher's Beliefs about Teaching and Learning

5.0 Introduction

This chapter attempts to explain how the teacher operationalized CTBL lessons and the teacher's role function within the language classroom. Data used from these sources include the teacher's and the research assistant's (RA's) logs (See 4.3.2.2 and 4.3.2.4). The RA is involved in this project in that I regard him as a key person to provide some useful information in support of this research work. By so doing, I obtained part of my data from the log of the RA who actually watched the relevant videotapes after every weekly session. Through these procedures I will show triangulated evidence of how these cooperative and task-based learning situations actually worked in addition to analyzing how the teacher noticed these processes and what she noticed in addition to the RA's observations.

In addition to these points, I will examine and present the data to see whether from the teacher data, the action research intervention was successful. The ultimate goal of this action research is to enhance students' motivation to read in class and these discussions will be followed by an analysis of the teacher's lesson plans in relation to her objectives or intentions. Thus, all relevant data from the teacher's and the RA's perspective will be used to address the research question.

In this chapter, the term 'RA' refers to the research assistant. Moreover, the 'I' is the researcher of the entire chapter but I refer to myself as "the teacher" in order to keep these two roles clearly distinguished.

5.1 Definition of CTBL

5.1.1 Definition of CL

Before explaining how the teacher operationalized the ideas of CTBL in class and how she devised her lesson plan, a closer look at the definition of the "cooperative learning" approach is in order.

Regarding the CL approach, Gillies (2007) summarizes that there are five main features: 1. Positive interdependence. 2. Face-to-face interaction amongst students; 3. Individual accountability which is necessary for mastering the assigned material; 4. Interpersonal and small-group skills used by students. 5. Group processing. See sections 5.2.1, 5.3.1 and 5.3.2 for how my lesson plan reflects these key elements.

5.1.2. Definition of TBLT

(Richards & Rodgers (2001: 223) indicate that TBLT aims to foster the central concept of 'task' in the teaching and planning of the language curriculum. Basing the process of learning on how students absorb an additional language rather than on teaching a selected language skill or knowledge, TBLT syllabus comprises a series of tasks, in which learners ought to be involved in the meaningful use of the target language for carrying out their tasks and thus acquiring the language. The following features are derived from literature analysis in chapter 3, which we can match with those in the teacher's entire lesson plan and which shows the main five key features of 'task' in TBLT: 1) comprehensible input, 2) practice in the real world, 3) the fundamental purpose of communication, 4) the use of the target language, and 5) Providing opportunities for learners' engaging and thinking to notice forms.

In summary, in the following pages I will present how CTBL, the integration of CL and TBLT (see Chapter 3 for more detail), is operationalised by providing one specific example of each approach over twelve lessons. In 5.2.1, we see how the teacher actually operationalized CL in terms of engaging students in positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction amongst, individual accountability for mastering the assigned material, and interpersonal and small-group skills. In addition in 5.2.2, I will demonstrate how the teacher operationalized TBLT with regards to providing students different tasks in pairs or groups with regard to essential elements indicated above.

5.2 Operationalization of CTBL

5.2.1 CL Examples of a Detailed Lesson Plan

In this section, we see how the teacher actually operationalized CL in one lesson and

also how she included each key element. Also, I will select the examples of each, which is best described with regard to each component based on the definition of CL.

Here I present specific examples in terms of CL key elements in Lesson One and show how these components motivated participants to engage in class tasks through different group work. Lesson One is titled “Taiwan’s Geography and Climate”.

In this lesson, there are three teaching objectives for task one during the pre-task phase and pre-reading discussion. At this early stage, my tentative presumption is that the students are capable of learning: 1) Encourage students to think through the question. “Are weather forecasts usually correct in Taiwan? Why or Why not?” 2) Stimulate students’ motivation for participation and involvement. 3) Pre-reading questions can help students to find key elements and details of the reading when they are skimming reading material later.

The procedures of the lesson exhibits are as follows: The teacher had students write down the title of the reading, “Taiwan’s Geography and Climate”, on the board and she then put the students into pairs in the class group. She then had the students look at the title of the story and a map of Taiwan, and guess what the reading is about. (Emphasize what, where, who and why). **Then the teacher presented some vocabulary related to the reading, and had her students find the words in the reading in pair practice. (Element 2: Face-to-Face interaction amongst students)**

After a short period of time, she had her students look at pre-reading questions on their handouts and then had them discuss these points with their partner for five minutes. **The objective here was to attempt to provide a little time for her students to prepare for their answers and then ask one or two groups to share their guesses. (Element 1: Positive Interdependence)**

In the task cycle phase, there were two teaching objectives: one to help students to practice their skimming reading skills while the other was to expand the students’ vocabulary competence. The following steps formed the procedure in guiding students to practice their skills regarding skimming and vocabulary guessing. **First, she had the**

pupils quickly skim through the story and circle any new words about which they are not sure or would like to know in the second or third columns of the table in Activity A (See Appendix 7) (Element 4: Interpersonal and small-group skills used by students)

After finishing the reading, she had students work in pairs and compare their vocabularies. They were allowed to help each other with the meaning of the new words. (Element 2: Face-to-Face interaction amongst students)

She then chose a group to share their list (columns 2 and 3) and allowed other groups to add new words to the list afterwards. Finally, the teacher went through the new words with the students to make sure of their understanding of these new words (The students were allowed to use dictionaries.) (Element 4: Interpersonal and small-group skills used by students)

In the post-reading phase, the teacher's aim was to focus on critical thinking and speaking. First, she divided the class into five cooperative teams and provided them time to share their opinions on the two questions provided in Activity C. (Element 3: Individual accountability for mastering the assigned material)

She gave out a paper to each group and asked them to write down 3 to 5 comprehension questions that were related to the reading. (Element 1: Positive Interdependence)

She then asked students to exchange their question sheets with another group (Element 2: Face-to-Face interaction amongst students) and to answer the questions designed by the group with which they exchanged the sheets.

The teacher concluded with the language usages of difficult words and useful phrases and specific meanings of the words or phrases, which appeared in the question sheets or reading contents. She then asked for questions before finishing the class. In the end, she provided some time for students to write their class reflections in their logs. (Element 5: Group processing)

What we can now see here are useful indications of how the instructor operationalized CL in her class with regard to the essential five components within this lesson.

5.2.2 TBLT Examples Selected from the Teacher's Entire Lesson Plan

This section mainly contains an overview of several detailed lessons in different units in which the teaching techniques demonstrate how the instructor's intentions adapt to her teaching plan and how the teacher actually operationalized TBLT. The following features are derived from literature analysis in chapter 3, which can be matched with the ones in the teacher's entire lesson plan, which has shown the main five key features of 'task' in TBLT described in 5.1.2

1) Comprehensible Input: The objective in this case is to centre on both meaningful content and form-focused instruction in order to help learners understand the language forms to support the comprehensible input of each lesson.

In Lesson 3, the pre-task phrase, the teacher had students show their prepared comic strips from newspapers or comic books, or postcards to inspire their dialogue amongst individual learners or group discussion for five minutes during the warm up activity period, and during the reading stages, the teacher explained reading skills (i.e. scanning) to help students understand better the comprehension questions, which pupils would do later. Following this procedure, the teacher had the students scan through the comic strips and underline those sentences, which were related to the pre-reading questions.

2) Practice in a Real-World Situation: The objective here is to enable learners to practice their language with spoken or written skills, which can be applied to a real-life situation.

In Lesson 12, students read a letter of complaint after the teacher's pre-reading instruction. The teacher assigned each group as a team to write on a separate sheet of paper. Groups are required to write a response letter in reply to the original letter of complaint from a given company's customer. They need to offer better service to solve different situations with the solution letter.

There are five tasks for each team as follows:

Team 1: write a response letter to **offer a discount**

Team 2: write a response letter to **offer a refund**

Team 3: write a response letter to **offer repairs**

Team 4: write a response letter to **offer an exchange**

Team 5: write a response letter to **offer store credit**

3) The Purpose of Communication: The objective in this case is to provide learners opportunities to make communicative interaction.

In lesson 7, the teacher assigned different tasks to each team. The teacher also provided some quality time for all group discussions during which students could take 10 minutes to interact with one another. After their discussions, each group was required to report their group conclusions to all on stage. The objective of this task was to help students learn how to make good use of their communicative skills to interact with one another by sharing personal opinions.

Each task was assigned to different groups as follows:

- I. Team 1 had to find **the most economical** of all methods of transportation (including cars, taxis, city buses) from international C.K.S. airport to our school.
- II. Team 2 had to find **the most comfortable and luxurious** form of transportation (including cars, taxis, city buses) from international C.K.S. airport to our school.
- III. Team 3 had to find **the most convenient** way of all manners of transportation (including cars, taxis, city buses) from international C.K.S. airport to our school.
- IV. Team 4 had to find **the fastest** means of transportation (including cars, taxis, city buses) from international C.K.S. airport to our school.
- V. Team 5 had to find **the most complicated and cheapest** form of all transportation (including cars, taxis, city buses) from international C.K.S. airport to our school.

4) The Use of the Target Language: The objective was to motivate learners to practice the target language in performing their tasks.

In lesson 2, the teacher encouraged the learners to practice their English spoken skills. For example, she had three or four students team up and prepare a role-play after group discussions following the teacher's instructions and guideline. One of the pupils would play the role of the restaurant owner while his or her team members played customers who unfortunately found something unusual, such as a fly and a hair in their food or soup and who then began an oral argument with the restaurant owner. The task was to help learners to imagine that once they entered a restaurant, they needed to use the target language immediately. The teacher also provided some useful role-play phrases and expressions that could be used in this situation.

(5) Providing opportunities for learners' engaging and thinking to notice forms:

The objective is to get learners' feedback after the completion of the syllabus process.

In Lesson One, Post-reading Stage: Post-reading Discussion (10 minutes)

Focus: Critical thinking and speaking:

1. Divide the class into 5 cooperative teams and provide them time to share their opinions on the two questions provided in Activity C.
2. Give out a paper to each group and ask each group to write down 3-5 comprehension questions that are related to the reading.
3. Exchange the question sheets with another group and to answer the questions designed by the group which they exchange the sheet with.
4. Students' writing their Class Diary.

I have now shown through, examples elicited from five different lessons, how the teacher operationalized the TBLT syllabic process in her class, which encompassed five important features in the lesson plan. In the following section I ascertain whether or not, in actual practice, the teacher thought she was successful in her instructions.

5.3 Analysis of 'Success'

In sections 5.3.1 to 5.3.4, I will present evidence in support of how CTBL class was successful and in so doing, we see how this approach actually worked in practice. In

addition, we can also view how the lessons were planned and how the teacher observed the developmental process and what she noticed in terms of CL and TBLT separately as well as the RA's observations. In order to serve as accurate evidence of triangulation amongst differing concepts concerning various roles in class, the purpose in this case is to provide more detailed information and further to explain how the RA noticed progress with the teacher in practice.

The following evidence supports and links the teacher's observations in her and the RA's conclusions:

5.3.1 Examples of CL Noticed by the Teacher and RA

In this section, I present evidence of success as noticed by the teacher in cooperative learning environments relating to five elements: 1) positive interdependence; 2) face-to-face interaction amongst students; 3) individual accountability for mastering the assigned material; and 4) interpersonal and small-group skills used by students; 5) group processing.

A) Positive interdependence

The following quote constitutes perceptions from the RA's observation log, which serves as triangulated evidence in order to provide more details and to explain further how things were operationalized and how the teacher executed these functions in practice.

The notion of "sinking or swimming" together provides the motivation to cooperate and facilitate each other's learning. The instructor stated:

The students are all working very well together in their groups among whose members I see **extensive communication**. After a while the teacher tells the **groups to answer the questions as a team**. (RA's log, week 9)

In Lesson 9, the RA observed "lots of communication within the groups" and this phenomenon seemed to indicate 'success' amongst members' active participation in

communication with a strong sense of ‘group cohesion.’ In order to achieve the desired team outcome, the teacher told her pupils it was required for each to answer her question within the team. In so doing, the sense of “positive interdependence” indeed enhances group outcome based on members’ joint efforts rather than individuals acting in isolation.

In addition the teacher noted the same element of ‘positive interdependence’, as she gave her pupils work to do:

Overall, **they (the students) successfully performed their role-plays** on the podium, and every team member was involved in one role. Though some spoke little in the group play, **the audiences could understand what they meant by the actors’ body language and key gestures.** (Teacher’s log, week 2)

In Lesson Two, the teacher noted one of the effective ways to facilitate members’ learning was to provide group work with “Role play” being involved in each member’s participatory activities. Here she used the wording, “successfully performed their role play,” by indicating each group’s joint efforts to show their contributions in order to present ‘successful team work’. Her notes also conveyed the team members’ efforts by the use of verbal and non-verbal language to achieve their own goals. In so doing, ‘positive interdependence’ existed as long as team members engaged in cooperative learning among one another.

B) Face-to-face Interaction amongst Students

The second element is also called “promotive interaction” in that it refers to “students’ work in small groups where they can see each other so they can engage in face-to-face discussions about the group’s tasks” (Gillies, 2007: 4). The teacher also noticed this factor.

In the class, I observed two group members performing very naturally in interacting with one another, and **sharing information with another group.** (Teacher’s log, week 1)

In Lesson 1, the teacher reflected that pupils interfaced through group work, particular in these two teams. These participants seemed “naturally to act reciprocally with one

another.” Another point noted was that they could ‘share information with another group.’ That is to say, communication not only occurred with one group, but it also could interact with another group via “promotive interaction”.

In addition, the teacher executed her operationalization over twelve lessons, in which she utilized a total of six ‘engagements’ through group discussions, which she observed during actual classes. She also wrote a total of four cases in which ‘groups actively interacted with one another.’ In so doing, students ‘enjoyed’ reporting as a group on stage three times when the teacher assigned presentations as a team task.

The following quote from the RA’s log highlights this characteristic of “Face-to-face promotive interaction” and also demonstrates different kinds of activities through which students learned to help each other in their group:

I saw many students **helping each other with vocabulary or anything else they might find hard to understand.** The other students also were willing to **help their fellow classmates.** During their conversations, **I also saw various students helping** each other when one was stumbling over words or forgot where their place was. (RA’s log, week 6)

The RA also made the same observations and at the same point where the teacher noted similar indications thus providing triangulation of evidence. Through teamwork, the key word ‘help’ is constantly present as the teacher encourages her students ‘to help each other.’ In addition, she also maintained a positive relationship amongst students and the teacher because of the notion of ‘assisting each other.’

Also, because the word ‘help’ appeared a total of nine times in the RA’s record it drew our attention. The phrase ‘helping each other,’ appeared in different situations and appeared frequently in his observable weekly log. Similarly, the teacher used a notion of ‘engaging in group work’ instead of the word ‘help’ in her log. Both the RA and the teacher saw the same phenomenon when they reflected on the teacher’s actual practice.

C) Individual accountability for mastering the assigned material

The third key component, “Individual accountability” is an essential concept. Here, the definition of “individual accountability” refers to “group members accepting personal

responsibility for their contributions aimed at attaining the group's goal" (Gillies, 2007:39). In the following example, we will see how the teacher noticed her pupils' carried out their responsibilities:

While doing the worksheet, I **saw the students working together in groups**. **The teacher walked around the room** to make sure everyone was doing his or her work. (RA's log, week 8)

In Lesson 8, the RA noticed how the pupils carried out their sense of "individual accountability" with the teacher's encouragement. By walking around the room, the instructor would 'make sure everyone was doing his or her work.' In doing this monitoring activity, the sense of "individual accountability" for mastering the assigned material was met because she could actually see how each student was accepting and effecting individual responsibility via team work.

Another similar situation is stated as follows:

The presentation involves role- play. **The teacher encourages the students not to memorize** the worksheet but rather to try, and **make up what to say on their own**. (Week 11, RA's log)

In week 11, the group goal is to present a role-play. The teacher helped her students with a proper guideline in which she encouraged each member to complete an individual job. The goal in this case was to encourage students to "make up what to say on their own," thus not memorizing the lines on the worksheet. The implication here was that each individual pupil would cooperate in order to present a group role-play on stage.

D) Interpersonal and small-group skills used by students

There is a fourth component of CL which is worth noting in terms of strengthening pupils' interpersonal and small-group skills and this point demonstrates that the role of the teacher was not only operationalizes in practice, but that she also ensures students perform their group tasks by the use of interpersonal and small-group skills as follows:

I see many of the pupils **asking each other for help with pronunciation and reading**. I feel it is a good thing to have students talk to each other in this way **instead of the palaver encountered** in most other classes' students. (RA's log, week 5)

In Lesson 5, the RA noticed not a few students asking each other for help, particularly in pronunciation and reading. This point suggests that members would engage in group discussion via the use of different types of communicative skills in real practice. Rather than talking clichés or nonsense, not a few members would try to provide others with personal feedback on how they used these language skills if someone were to be in need of attachment to group communications by accepting him or her as a member. The word, “help”, in this context refers to “create more positive relationships” amongst team members (Gillies, 2007: 42). It also helped each pupil to enhance his or her learning outcome by the use of the interpersonal and small-group skills with this kind of learning situation.

It is essential to help students to use social skills in groups when they interact with other members. Another similar situation is described as follows:

The purpose of this exercise was to see how students could apply themselves while they were doing their tasks in a group. Besides, the teacher **reminded her students to be patient waiting while other members were talking**. (Week 11, teacher's log)

In week 11, the teacher assigned students tasks to do within their own groups and also to interact with one another. She also observed that some students did not use the proper social skills while talking within their teams. In order to make these group discussions more effective, she reminded her students to be patient. By asking them not to interrupt what other pupils were saying, the teacher thus hoped her students would wait for other members to finish his or her explanations. By implication, it is expected the teacher could give her students more time to practice their individual social skills within a group.

(E) Group Processing

This concept refers to the learning process as the entire team works toward the same goal and this process needs to be recorded on a regular basis. Within this context, there

are two other ideas involved in the discussion process with other team members: one is to express which actions by other team members were helpful and unhelpful; the other is to take some major actions within the group which can either be continued or changed.

The following quote from the teacher's log shows what actions groups actually took:

I handed the evaluation sheets for team performance and interactive worksheets of dialogues with cartoons for each group. By so doing, team members had time **to discuss their strength and weakness during the group process** and I actually saw students discuss this topic within the various groups. (Week 3, teacher's log)

The teacher gave each team these two worksheets in class in order for each group to evaluate their group performances. Thus, members could reflect on their individual behaviours by discussing the strengths and weaknesses, which occurred in each group during this process. In so doing, her purpose was to keep students working on the basis of positive relationships. The RA also pointed out another situation:

They (students) spoke openly to the teacher when they had questions or comments. She (the teacher) walked around the room constantly **reminding them of what they were supposed to be doing thus keeping them on track.** (Week 5, RA's log)

In week 5, students and the teacher maintained a positive relationship when pupils posed any questions by openly speaking to their teachers. In so doing, students could accept what the teacher reminded them of in doing their jobs within the time allotted for group evaluation. This point implies that the teacher would provide students time to maintain their focus on what they had done during their group activities.

To sum up, this procedure seemed to prove that it is definitely effective in helping students enhance active participation in group discussions and keeping students on track. By implication, the teacher would play an appropriate role exhibiting proper guidance in coaching group work in CL groups.

5.3.2 Examples of TBLT noticed by the teacher and RA

In section 5.1.2 five essential elements were defined: 1) comprehensible input, 2) practice in the real world, 3) the fundamental purpose of communication, 4) the use of

the target language, and 5) Providing opportunities for learners' engaging and thinking to notice forms. In the following pages, these four key elements will be illustrated as noted the RA

a) Comprehensible Input

"Input" refers to "the spoken, written and visual data that learners use in the course of completing a task. Data can be provided by a teacher, textbook or some other source" (Nunan, 2004:47). Willis (1996) defines it in a similar way saying that input could originate from "teacher talk, students listening to each other, reading the texts or listening to recordings of others doing the task" (p.59). This input usually involves the use of language (Willis, 1996). The following paragraph contains an example of the use of "comprehensible input" in CTBL classrooms.

In order to understand the term of "comprehensible input", first let us define what "input data" is. Willis (1996) indicates the meaning of input data as being, "the aural and written texts through which learners gain access to the language" (p.214). Here "comprehensible input" is expected to make it easy for learners to comprehend the interaction between the reading content and outcome of the tasks.

Here is an example of TBLT in terms of comprehensible input:

The class is practising business letters...She (the teacher) starts by asking the students where they would use a business letter, **stressing the importance of learning to write such correspondence.** (RA's log, week 12)

The RA's notes show that he knew the lesson topic and background. The teacher tried to interact with her pupils by asking about their actual experiences in possible use of a commercial letter and this chance seems also to provide many opportunities for learners to comprehend the key question of where to use such letters. In order to increase the learner's knowledge of the importance of using a business letter, the teacher emphasized the key point in learning this lesson. She thus acted as a medium to stimulate her pupils to obtain comprehensive reading understanding.

b) Practice in the Real World

In terms of reading activities, Clark and Silberstein (1977) say that “Classroom activities should parallel the ‘real world’ as closely as possible” (p.53). In addition, they further stress that the purpose of reading ought to be the same in class since most learners would need to cope with it in real life (Clark and Silberstein, 1977). In TBLT, a key element of the purpose of this study is to motivate learners to use knowledge in class as in real life.

Here is another example to elucidate this concept:

The teacher then has these students team up whereupon she then gives them a situation in which they may have to write a business letter. **She has the pupils discuss what they would do if they bought a broken cell phone.** (RA’s log, week 12)

In Lesson Twelve, the teacher organized her class and gave them different situations in which to write a business letter and she then led the students in team discussions before doing a group task. She thus provided her pupils many opportunities to communicate while practicing their tasks.

c) Purposes of communication

As indicated above, learners will be exposed to many opportunities to communicative activities in the class. Via written texts or spontaneous discussions in the TBLT process, they can practice the target language often. In so doing, this approach attempts to produce communication rather than language teaching (Nunan, 2004). Indeed, communication is a key for learners to have successful outcomes via a TBLT syllabus.

Here is an example from the teacher’s log:

I see most university students absorbing new things quickly and easily. While reading content also provides useful knowledge to them, **group discussions were the most interesting factor while they were doing their tasks.** (Teacher’s log, week 11)

The teacher saw most of her students learn new things “quickly” and “easily” after the previous ten class sessions. Through this learning process, reading texts seem useful to learners, but the most interesting thing for them is “group discussion.” This factor exists because the tasks require pupils to work hard to comprehend the text in pair or group practice and rehearsing in class through communicative behaviours. In performing this function, it is expected for learners to have more opportunities to practice communicative interactions outside the classroom.

d) Use of the target language

TBLT provides many opportunities for most learners to use real language in different circumstances (Willis, 1996). Clark and Silberstein (1977) posit that: “language is a tool of communication, methods and materials should concentrate on the message, not the medium” (p.53). The following example shows that the teacher noticed the component existed in her actual practice:

During group presentation on the stage to **practice the target language**, each group's reporters would like to draw other groups' attention and thus try to make the class more relaxing and cheerful. Some groups even used more English without reading scripts they prepared while **they were enjoying reporting on stage**. (Teacher's log, week 11)

In Lesson Eleven, the teacher intends to provide opportunities for her students to use the target language and to present group work on stage. Beyond her intention, participants performed well because as shown by the observation, “...while they enjoyed reporting on stage.” It implied that pupils could not only practice the target language on stage, but also show their enjoyment “to report on stage.”

Last but not least, practicing the target language is quite necessary for most learners in the process of experiencing a TBLT syllabus. For example:

The worksheet consists of questions they have to ask each other in English and then answer themselves. The teacher encourages **the students to do their best to answer and ask in English**. (RA's log, week 7)

In Lesson Seven, the design of the worksheet requires exchanging information with other classmates by “asking each other in English and then answering the question themselves.” In order to practice the target language, the students try “to do their best to answer and ask in English” with the encouragement of the instructor. In doing thus, the learners can obtain the information while practicing their tasks in class via the use of the target language. It is expected of learners to voice their opinions freely and obtain confidence in practicing the target language via talking to each other in pairs or groups (Willis, 1996).

e) Providing opportunities for learners' engaging and thinking to notice forms

The following examples show that how the teacher helped her students notice forms-operationalized in her actual practice:

Finally, we discussed some structurally correct forms usage during the phase of language analysis. I saw some students concentrating on learning the wrong usage and thus I pointed out and **wrote correct forms on the blackboard**. After that, I allowed pupils to **write their learning diaries** for a short period before the end of class. (Teacher's log, week 2)

In Lesson two, the teacher allowed her students some time to focus on forms at the phase of language usage. By pointing out the wrong usage on the blackboard, she reminded her students of “writing correct forms” on the board. In order to understand students' learning process, the teacher gave her students time to reflect what they learnt in their writing diary before the end of class. The teacher not only gave her pupils time to practice the forms, but she also reminded them not to use it in a wrong way.

From above, the RA's also echoed what the teacher did with reference to language focus in her class. In particular, she highlighted the feature of engaging all learners to participate in the following activity in order to notice forms:

...The instructor writes their (students') suggestions on the blackboard so she can review it with the rest of the class. She also has the pupils decide which alternative would be most appropriate in this situation. (RA's log, week 12)

The RA saw the teacher writing on the blackboard and reviewing them with the rest of class to encourage learners' engagement and participating in her questions at the phase of noticing forms. In addition to that, the teacher provided her pupils opportunities to think and suggest how to use the forms by writing their suggestions on the board. She invited the rest of the class to think about what to use as the most appropriate way in the situation. Thus, the observer also saw how the teacher led her students to the process of noticing forms, and thinking how to use it on their own.

To integrate the comments of the RA, the teacher criticized her operationalization in her log where her objective was to improve herself with regard to her future actual practice. On the other hand, the RA would maintain an objective opinion in terms of general observation through his eyes. Thus, the evidence we obtained here is integrated from triangulated corroboration, and thus not limited to the narrow perceptions of one person.

5.4 Motivation to Read

Cooperative learning activities under the teacher's instruction would provide a variety of practical opportunities for students to practice frequently the target language in small groups, and cooperative learning also helps to develop student-student and student-teacher relationships in a language classroom. In so doing, CL aims to create two positive results in class. One goal is to increase student motivation in a cooperative learning group; the other is to enhance group cohesion and efficacy in group work.

However, TBLT is another key component in motivation. Willis (1996) suggests it keeps students' "motivation to listen and read (i.e. to process the exposure for meaning; and also to use the language; to speak and write)" (p.60). It was expected by the teacher that a CTBL strategy would promote her students' interests with regard to improving their motivation to read.

One of the main reasons for this idea is because the theories of task-based learning and cooperative learning jointly create group cohesion and group efficacy (i.e. group joint efforts) in class. Therefore, the task for second/ foreign language learners not only

results in successful outcomes, but it also enhances language learning by means of applying language in various ways in a task syllabus (Ellis, 2003).

In the following sections provided by the teacher's and the RA's log, many examples exist of what they noted in various tasks with respect to increased students' motivation.

5.4.1 Examples of Motivation to Read Noticed by the Teacher and RA

In the following quote, the teacher describes the topic, MP3, of the task on lesson eleven, which truly motivated students' interests to read in class:

Group discussion generated strong participation amongst all members. **Most students enjoyed reading** today's topic, MP3, and seemed eager to know more about the field in terms of new devices and technologies. In addition, **most students enjoyed group role-plays** during presentations by using creative thinking. **Some groups even used more English** without reading scripts they prepared while they enjoyed reporting on stage. (Week eleven, Teacher's log)

This quote suggests that the teacher motivated students' learning interests by giving them day-to-day tasks. Moreover, they desired to know more about the advanced knowledge related to these new devices when they shared their opinions via group discussion.

In addition, the follow-up task has shown that groups had originally enjoyed their experiences of doing role-plays. Through their presentations, some groups would use their 'creative thoughts' to act out their plays full of imagination; others would practice English more than what they had originally intended. Because most of these groups enjoyed reporting tasks on the stage, their positive learning attitudes were motivated through the process of CTBL. These positive results reflect that CTBL class not only provides the actual topic lesson close to the real world for learners to practice, but it also stimulates learners' motivation to learn more with regard to their reading activities through group joint efforts.

Here is another similar quote regarding how students processed their group work and achieved their tasks via CTBL:

Students could **connect one task with another** and they process their group discussions **smoothly and quickly**. It is good to see **their improvement amongst reading activities in terms of specific reading skills** they learnt through the past eight weeks. (Week eight, Teacher's log)

In Lesson Eight, the teacher noticed that the entire CTBL session was processed very well and this point was because students could engage in this process while they were working in “a group discussion smoothly and quickly.” She used the words, ‘smoothly’ and ‘quickly’ to describe the situation of her pupils’ doing group work efficiently, which refers to group members who possessed strong enthusiasm in doing a variety of class activities. The teacher noticed that students’ achievements, particularly in specific reading skills, had improved throughout the past eight weeks and this development led to a successful outcome.

Some Examples of Motivation to Read Indicated by RA

In order to obtain the necessary triangulated evidence, here I present the RA's comments when he observed the class via the weekly video session. He reported many observations regarding CTBL and here we have the best two cases regarding CTBL from his observations:

The teacher then tells the students to **skim through an article** in the worksheet and has the **students talk together about the article**. This **improves the students reading, speaking, and listening skills in English**. The teacher then walks around and listens to each group as they talk about the article among one another. (RA's log, week 10)

In Lesson Ten, the teacher assigned her pupils to practice one of the reading skills, skimming, to read through the text on the worksheet and she followed this exercise with group discussion. In doing this group activity, the RA noticed that the students would increasingly improve their English in different language skills, such as reading, speaking, and listening. In order to check how successful the session was, the teacher challenged

her students by “walking around the class”, and viewing how the students cooperated in different communicative situations with other classmates by “talking to one another.”

Apart from the previous example, there is yet another similar notion of improving learners' communicative skills as follows:

She (the teacher) also assigned each student a partner with whom to work. This approach encouraged the students **to improve their communication skills as well as their student/student relationship** within the class. By her assistance, the teacher tried to **encourage the students' interests and then encourage them** to expand from there. (RA's log, week 4)

In Lesson Four, the teacher gave her students an assigned team project with a partner through which students could obtain many opportunities to talk among each other and further to know how to develop trusting relationships with each other. It is expected that the teacher and learners will establish positive relationships in pair practice. The point in this case was to motivate students' interests in learning through the teacher's encouragement and the hope is to expand pupils' learning motivation via joint efforts and diverse class tasks.

In the teacher's log, there were a total of eleven times in which words, such as 'motivate,' 'enjoy,' 'fun,' 'laughter,' 'excited,' and 'interest' were repeated and these same words were reiterated a total of four times in RA's log. This fact shows that the participants maintained a sense of interest in doing their reading activities based on TBLT syllabus and practiced them in pair or group work.

5.5 Summary

In this chapter, I clarified issues concerning what the teacher actually practiced in class and what she noticed about motivation in her actual practices. In addition, another key person, the research assistant (RA), provided important data sources, which helped provide triangulated evidence to complement those in the teacher's log. However, I focused not only on motivation but on showing how CTBL was operated in practice.

In the following chapter, the analysis of all participants' data will be presented and related to theory of motivation in learning a foreign language.

CHAPTER 6

Students' Perception

6.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I focused on the perspective of the teacher towards instruction. Now I will shift my focus to the students' views of the language classroom. I include a collection of data from students' learning diaries and interviews, small-group observation sheets, etc. This chapter will present findings from an analysis of the relationship between students' motivation and students' achievements derived from such data.

The process consists of:

1. Examination of models of motivation and a decision to focus on Tremblay and Gardner (1995), as explained in Chapter 3;
2. Development of a postulated model adding to Gardner's framework with variables from the experiment such as group work and task-based learning;
3. Examination of the data to see if it fits this model (See Figure 6.1) – and modifications of the model;
4. Presentation of the data according to (a part of) the model (See Figure 6.2 or 6.3), i.e. the part for which there is data from the experiment.

The model presents causal links amongst possible motivational variables developed from all data, and once the analysis has been completed it will be possible to consider the implications for future reading courses and methods of teaching reading.

6.1 Motivation for Foreign Language reading in CTBL Study

In this section, I will introduce the proposed model (see Figure 6.1) in more detail identifying variables and the causal relations amongst them which may lead to heightening student's motivation levels to learn to read English through the CTBL approach as represented in figure 6.1.

In this model, I describe how the increase in C level university student's motivation to learn both inside and outside class can be attributed to the CTBL approach. Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) Socio-Educational Model of motivation which extended Gardner's previous social psychological construct of L2 motivation was one starting point for creating a model which accounted for the variables which seemed to be present in the CTBL classroom. Tremblay and Gardner's model describes the whole process of L2 learning and also highlights the many variables within it. In particular, motivation was one of the important features in Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) model.

In order to make this model useful for description of CTBL, I adapted several key variables from Tremblay and Gardner's model, and introducing few new components in the following section (See figure 6.1). These influences are considered to be motivating factors amongst language students learning to read a second or foreign language.

The purpose of the following sections is to discuss those causal relationships, which are hypothesized and appear to exist – as evident from the data – amongst these variables. In order to provide an overview of this situation, I present the model with relationships amongst variables. My detailed explanation of these variables and relationships, and the data from which they have been derived, will then be presented step by step in the rest of this chapter.

6.1.1 CTBL Study Model

6.1.1.1 Dimension I of CTBL Motivation Model

The intervention in the classroom and the collection of data focuses on only some of these variables, which I have selected out of the whole model and presented as a 'partial model' as given in figure 6.2.

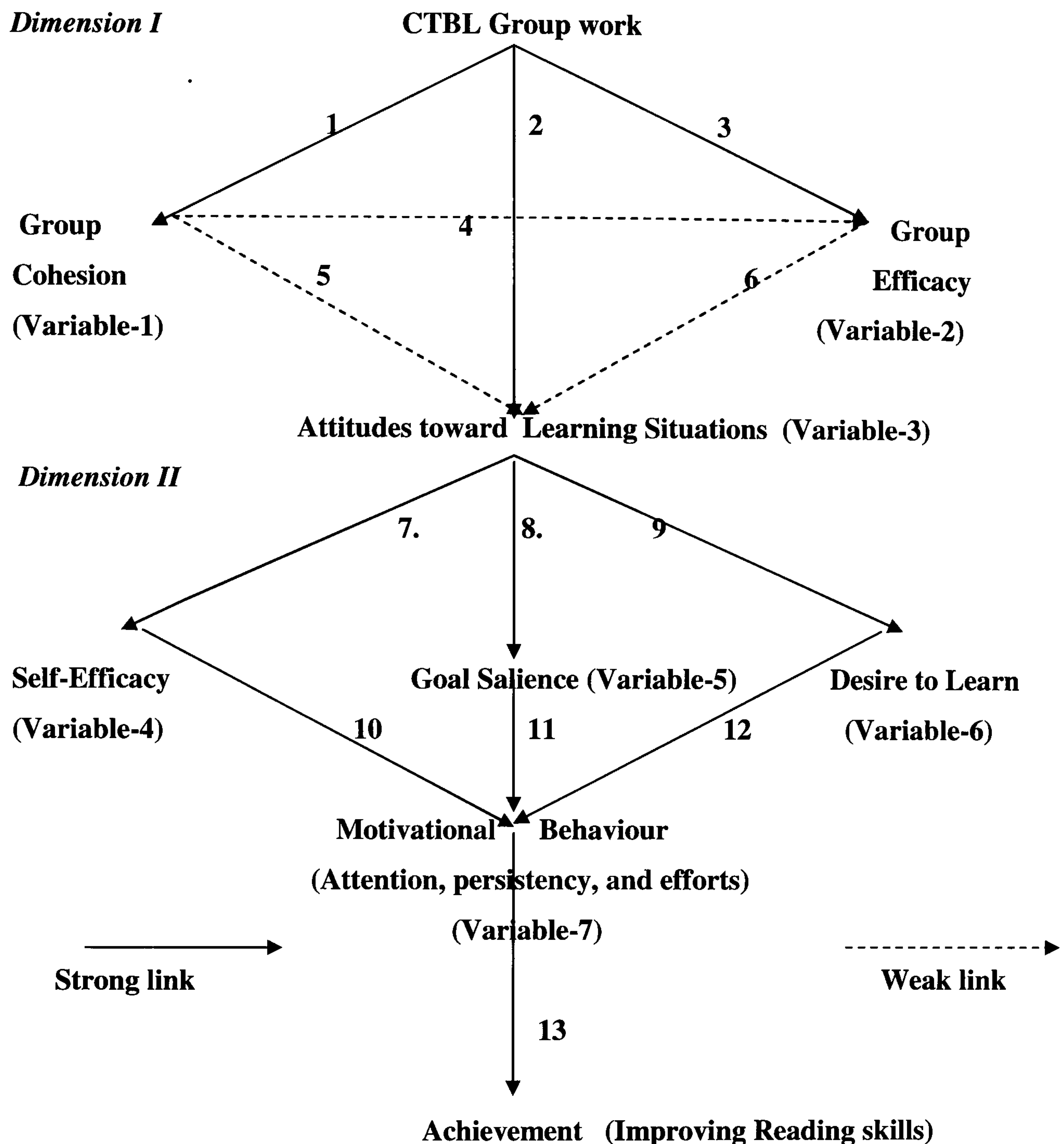


Figure 6.1

Motivation for Foreign Language reading in CTBL Study (Adapted from Tremblay & Gardner's revised model, 1995)

Number 1-13: The indicated variables, which are derived from the data, concern motivating the individual's decision to read in a foreign language. The solid lines reflect strong influences while the broken lines reflect weaker influences. All numbered lines of relationships indicate a specific area of the model which will be explained later in this study.

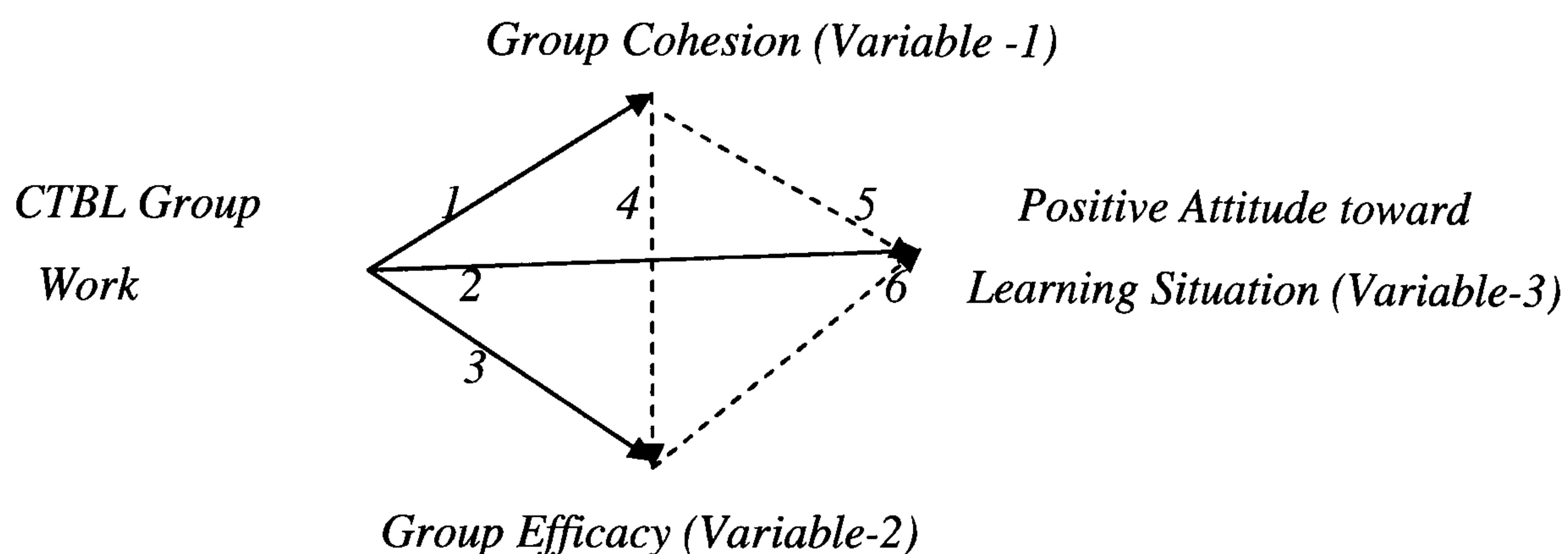


Figure 6.2 *Dimension I*

Considering the variables in order (See figure 6.2: Dimension I), I hypothesize a pleasant CTBL group working experience as being crucial for learners to enjoy their group tasks in a cooperative learning environment which then directly empowers the members' dynamic and reinforces their strong incentives to work together towards the same objective. In addition, creating a learning atmosphere of fun and acceptance by the members pre-supposes a pleasant atmosphere within a group setting. In such a learning atmosphere, students' participation and engagement in achieving group goals will thus be highly developed. Members might feel free to talk to one another with the encouragement of their peers in such a safe learning environment, and they may also feel a sense of protection from feeling shy in a group setting (Dornyei, 2001). This concept is related to the theory of cooperative learning aimed at achieving group success by creating **group cohesion (Variable 1)**, according to numerous studies and literature reports (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

In addition, cooperative learners can learn to read in a warm and supportive environment without competition (Dornyei, 1997) once group cohesion is created. Dornyei (2001) stressed that it is essential for cooperative learners to obtain other members' encouragement, through practice in and feedback from the group. Through

the learning process, members working together toward the same objective can not only develop a cohesive group but can also become more interdependent and supportive of their group than through individual learning experiences (Dornyei, 2001). Thus, adequate group tasks create group cohesion, promote group over individual learning and therefore individuals do not feel that they are working alone.

Many other findings, such as Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1994), have shown that perceived group cohesion in a second/foreign language-learning context plays an essential role within the group (Dornyei, 1994a). The fact remains that learners in a cohesive group work together in order to achieve group success. Indeed, a positive relationship between group performance and group cohesion is expected and the evidence of this group efficacy becomes self evident (Evans & Dion, 1991). Therefore, ***Group efficacy (variable 2)*** is created within the group milieu.

Encouragement of group performance will be successful once there is established a team effort in achieving valued and targeted goals with increasing group confidence (Johnson & Johnson, 1987). In addition, members working together as a whole will become highly productive and successful if they build up a sense of self- and joint-efficacy within a group process environment (Johnson & Johnson, 1987). This point also reinforces the sense of group efficacy over that of the individual. Also, the more learners increase in self-efficacy and self-confidence; the more self and joint efforts they will develop. In a nutshell, learners through good group interactive processes increase their enthusiasm through strong mutual engagement and in addition create group cohesion and efficacy.

Within Dimension 1 of the model *Group efficacy* (Variable 2) shows co-existence with *Group cohesion* (Variable 1) once there is good *CTBL work*. According to figure 6.1, there is a direct path postulated between *CTBL group work* and *group efficacy*. Such goal-oriented group tasks directly affect the individual's strength in a given group (Dornyei, 1994). So, team efforts through group learning process created by productive group work have been shown to lead to group efficacy as products of CTBL. Indeed, group cohesion and group efficacy are seen as group processing.

In addition, there exists another, direct link between *Group efficacy* and *Group cohesion*. Enhancing group cohesion of CTBL group work is as important as increasing members' feelings of effectiveness. From this model, we can see that the objective of the group process is to see valued outcomes as a consequence of members' constructive and positive feedback among each other as they pursue the same aim. The information or feedback given to the members is to improve the group's or the individual's performance through collaborative efforts. In so doing, these efforts lead to positive relationships linking other members' strength to the group's joint efforts to achieve successful group performance. Thus members' will be encouraged to participate strongly in group activities.

In light of these concepts, group efficacy, like group cohesion, is viewed as one of the essential components of the group process. However, the direct link between *Group cohesion and Group efficacy* represents a broken line, as the model in no. 4 of figure 6.1 suggests, which shows a less strong influence than a solid line. Here some links appear stronger than the others because we found there is more persuasive data on these links than the others. In contrast, on the weaker links we found that there is not as much persuasive data (i.e. the causal link between group cohesion and group efficacy).

Within this model, there may exist other solid links from *CTBL group work* to *attitudes towards the learning situation (Variable 3)*, which indicates that CTBL group work may have a direct influence on attitudes towards learning motivation. For example, a good CTBL group work experience can create positive attitudes towards student's environment, which will thus create enthusiastic attitudes toward these learning surroundings while pupils are doing their reading activities or tasks. In other words, this experience may directly enhance members' learning attitudes toward their situation and will also develop group dynamics and reinforce members' strong incentives, in order to work together towards the same objective.

Within this model, there is another relationship between *group efficacy* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation (Variable 3)*. Members' sense of efficacy will generate favourable feelings as a whole within the group environment, and thus, encourage working toward the same goals. This experience also leads to students' positive

attitudes toward the language environment, especially in a foreign/second language classroom.

Students' reactions are likely to be influenced by their feelings of efficacy through the group's joint efforts basically because that group's feelings of efficacy enable students gradually to develop positive attitudes toward the learning environment. In addition a warm and supportive group atmosphere will increase their cooperation and motivation in doing group work (Dornyei, 1997). Therefore, there is a direct path between *Group efficacy* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, as the model in no. 6 of figure 6.1 suggests.

The broken line shows *positive attitudes toward the learning environment* and *group cohesion*, as the model in no. 5 of figure 6.1 suggests. Similarly, the broken line (no.6) links *positive attitudes toward the learning environment* and *group efficacy*. This point suggests that both *group cohesion* and *group efficacy* create learners with *positive attitudes toward their learning situations* although these two links show lesser influences than solid lines.

6.1.1.2 Dimension II of CTBL Motivation Model

In dimension two of the model (See figure 6.3), there are four sources affecting second language learners' *attitudes toward reading (variable 3)*. They are: 1) First language reading attitudes, 2) previous experience with learning to read other second languages (if any), 3) attitudes toward the second language, culture, and people, 4) the second language classroom environment. In CTBL study, I focus on foreign language group members' attitudes toward their classroom environment. Other attributes could not be directly traced in this study, because this particular research could not gauge first-year college students' reading experiences before their college enrolment since they were from different high schools or institutes. With this point in mind, I focus on students' reading interests from foreign language class reading materials and reading activities through CTBL group work.

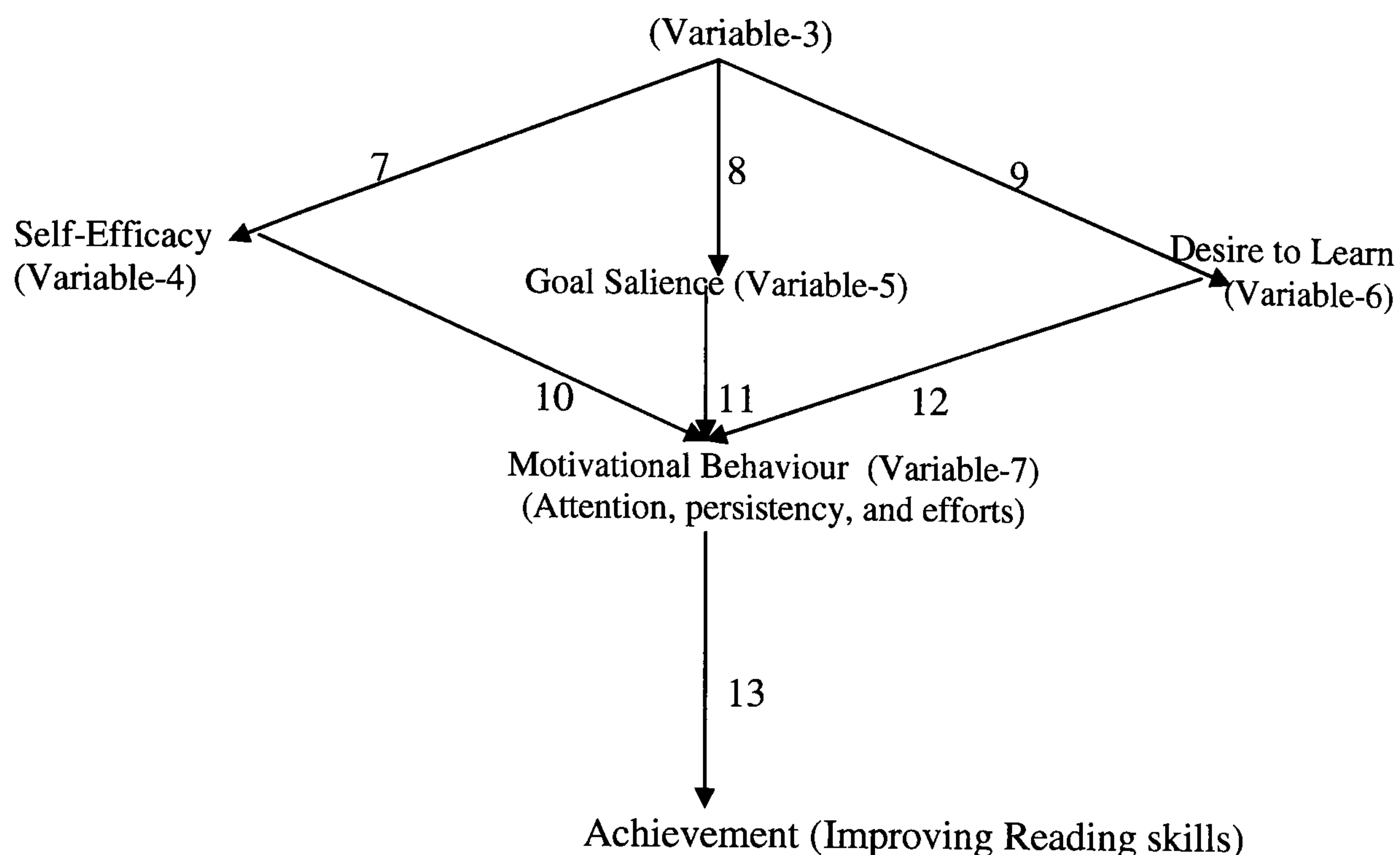


Figure 6.3 *Dimension II Attitudes toward Learning Situation*

Positive Attitude toward Learning Situation (Variable 3) → Self-Efficacy, Goal setting, Desire to Learn (Variable 4, 5, 6) → Motivational Behaviour (Variable 7) → Improved Reading Skills (Achievement)

Day & Bamford (1998) identify the definition of attitudes toward the second language classroom environment as “favourable feelings for and experiences with the teacher, classmates, materials, activities, tasks, procedures, and so on, can forge positive attitudes toward reading in the second language” (p.25). The groups’ learning attitudes toward second language reading materials and activities are clearly shown through weekly group observation sheets, interviews, and personal learning diaries, and these will be presented later.

To be specific, the classroom experience can be categorised as three components: materials used, relations with teacher and classmates, and activities and tasks. To be even further precise, class reading tasks and materials directly influence students’ learning interests. Williams (1986) brings up the idea of using interesting materials as the first of the top ten rules in teaching foreign language reading. He explicitly states “Interest is vital, for it increases motivation, which in turn is a significant factor in the

development of reading speed and fluency” (p.42). Even though there are a wide variety of materials for learners to read, interest is a strong influence in the second language learners’ motivation to read. The more interesting the materials is; the greater motivation to read them.

In addition, individuals with increased positive attitudes toward the learning situation are more likely to take up challenges in learning. For example, asking some pupils to speak in front of class could encourage them to feel more competent than before. Others would prefer to read as a whole group rather than performing self study in class because the former would allow students to become more capable to read with other members’ encouragement and support.

There also exists a causal link between members’ attitudes toward their learning situation and *self-efficacy (Variable 4)* in this study. It is seen that learners with belief in their language abilities obtain valued outcomes aroused by their positive attitudes. It is particularly important for C level foreign language learners to establish better self-perception in order to enhance their learning performance. This situation exists because the individual must have the self-belief necessary to cope with many setbacks in order to read better each time. So, the examples mentioned in the previous paragraph verify that learners with positive attitudes toward the learning situation acquire a sense of *self-efficacy*. The more self-efficient the learner becomes, the more he or she will use his/her cognitive strategies productively to solve problems (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). Schunk and Zimmerman also argue that “self-efficacy within a reading task is associated with use of strategies, self-regulation, and text comprehension within in the tasks” (1997: 236). Self-efficacy of the reading study includes the use of cognitive strategies and other relevant factors to enable the individual to increase his/her ability to feel more competent in reading while practicing in a group.

Apart from that, some students of the study described their capability in practicing their language with ease in front of groups. They felt comfortable practicing English with a sense of ‘can do’ obtained through personal efforts. While improving the individual’s *self-esteem* does not exactly lead to the group’s set goal, (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), in this study I show that goal setting will directly help the individual improve beyond

his or her expectations. Dornyei (2001) points out that “goal setting involves the identification of those goal features that increase student performance most” (p.125). Therefore, we can say there is a direct path from *positive attitudes toward the learning situation* to *goal salience*.

In this case, because students are likely constantly to demand achievement of their individual or group learning goals during the group process, members will therefore become more capable and confident within the group. Cooperative learning students will create more positive attitudes toward their learning environment, and increasingly enhance their sense of *self-efficacy* (Variable 4), *goal salience* (Variable 5), and *desire to learn* (Variable 6) (Dornyei, 2001). In order to help learners achieve these individual and/or group goals, they need many opportunities to practice the target language with more confidence than in other educational environments.

In addition, learners gaining positive attitudes could lead to an increase in their sense of *self-esteem*. Once students find themselves with the ability to learn more, they will then establish a goal to accomplish this objective. Having specific learning goals, they will increase their desire to learn more in order to master their language abilities. In other words, the more individuals' sense of *self-efficacy* grows, the more their desire to learn grows. For example: individuals can motivate themselves to read more about certain topics in line with their interests. Others would show great enthusiasm to share their opinions in group discussions once they find themselves with a desire to learn.

As indicated above, the enhancing of learners' positive attitudes towards the learning environment, individuals are likely to generate enthusiasm to feel *desire to learn*. Again, there are certain beneficial results of promoting the individuals' *desire to learn*, through engaging in group discussions, increasing continuing learning behaviour in completing learning tasks, gaining greater confidence in learning success, and feeling less anxiety toward the learning situation. For example, some pupils can perform much more competently with flexibility and feel more confident in language discussion and thus also gain the desire to learn once he/she feels the sense of 'can do.' Therefore, there is a direct link between *positive attitudes toward their learning situation* and *desire to learn*, as the model in no.9 of figure 6.1 suggests.

From the diagram, we can see there is a direct path from three components of variable 4-6 of the model, *the sense of self-efficacy, goal salience and desire to learn*, to **Motivational behaviours** (variable 7). By implication, this data suggests that learners will develop and enhance their motivational behaviour through development of these three components. Because students' confidence and ability to learn promotes their notion of *desire-to-learn*, as the model in no. 12 of figure 6.1 suggests, the individuals with C level language abilities in the study might not immediately reach their personal goals, but they can gradually meet their needs through persistent learning behaviours. Nevertheless, as we shall see in more detail later, these findings show that some students indeed, make slow progress in reading via group practices. This idea implies that there are those students who may likely consciously influence their reading progress as exhibited from their motivational behaviours. For example, the individual may pay more attention in group tasks or class reading activities and this development helps their efforts in doing group work and ultimately in promoting habits favourable to developing persistency in reading English, as the model in no. 13 of figure 6.1 suggests. A number of goal setting studies have clearly demonstrated that there is a direct link, as the model in no. 11 of figure 6.1 suggests, between high performance with a high level of efforts, and specific difficult goals (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Moreover, another link between desire to learn and motivational behaviour exists because students' confidence and ability to learn promotes their *desire-to-learn*, thus motivating their learning behaviours. It implies the direction is from desire to learn to motivational behaviours, as the model in no. 12 of figure 6.1 suggests. As we can see in no. 10-12 of the model, the theory of goal setting has shown that *Motivational behaviours* are created once **Goal salience** (variable 5) is established, and which directly reinforces achievement performance (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). However, achieving positive results will not lead to true motivational behaviours if three components of variable 4, 5 and 6, such as *Self-efficacy, goal salience, and desire to learn* exist by themselves. Figure 6.1 shows that three of these factors co-exist once motivational behaviours are created.

The first element of motivational behaviours can be seen as **the effort** (Variable 7-1). 'Effort' generally refers to 'the amount of energy expended' (Macehr & Braskamp,

1986 cited from Tremblay & Gardner, 1995:507). Another factor, '**Persistence**' (*variable 7-2*), can act slightly differently compared to '*Effort*'. Thus if the individual expends little effort while doing the task over a long time period (persistence), he/she cannot see the effect of motivational behaviours.

Apart from the above two components, '**Being attentive**' is viewed as the third part of *Motivational Behaviours (variable 7-3)* which directly influences students' achievements. For example, some pupils develop good reading language abilities, because they will remain persistent and display effort in reading and home exercises. Or, they carefully listen to their group discussions in order to compensate for their low-level language abilities once they have established their self-confidence. In so doing, a few individuals will become more competent in reading exercises, because they sense less anxiety and therefore desire to learn more in such a group-setting task-based environment. Therefore, I adapted three measures, '*effort,*' '*attention,*' and '*persistence,*' from Tremblay and Gardner's revised model, and have shown the link and effectiveness related to this study.

Students' achievements in this study constitute improvements in their reading skills. Within the model, I show that the positive effect of enhanced motivational behaviours (*variable 7*) create students' achievements in improving their reading skills, as the model in no. 13 of figure 6.1 suggests, as they themselves report it. Thus, the ultimate result of the diagram refers to individuals' achievement in reading skills. My aim is to model students' success by developing their motivation to read more English.

Summary

In brief, I propose with this model (see figure 6.1) that good CTBL group work helps create group cohesion and group efficacy, and that these two variables, group cohesion and group efficacy, influence each other within dimension one (also see figure 6.2). Therefore, group cohesion and group efficacy both directly lead to positive attitudes toward the learning situation (including the teacher, classmates, and reading activities). In addition, a pleasant CTBL group working experience is hypothesised as crucial for the learners to enjoy their group tasks in a cooperative learning environment. It directly

empowers the members' learning attitudes toward their learning situation and will also develop group dynamics and reinforce members' strong incentives, in order to work together towards the same objective.

In addition, positive attitudes toward learning situations create three other variables, self-efficacy, goal setting and the desire to learn. These components cause motivational behaviour, such as attention, persistency, and exertion of efforts to learn. The ultimate result of this diagram leads to L2 achievement in reading skills where I aim to show how students report that they improve their reading with respect to reading related study skills. In this investigation, I have attempted to account for strong and weak links, and direct or indirect relationships amongst all variables. It is a causal-link model, and all variables relate to one another in the study.

Having provided this overview of the model, in the following sections I will present data which support it in more detail.

6.2 Student' Perception of CTBL group work

The model presented above is based on students' reports about their work in the CTBL classroom. The data have been analysed to show the student perspective regarding classroom processes and to show how they experienced these steps in the learning experience. In doing my analysis I kept the following research question in mind:

To what extent does a cooperative task-based learning approach (CTBL) with an emphasis on group work increase the motivation to develop reading skills amongst Taiwanese university students with low achievement levels?

Why do C level university EFL learners need cooperative process learning strategies with the teacher's task-based teaching/learning instruction within the language classroom? How does the CTBL approach improve students' learning style to become active and not passive learners? Furthermore, how do students say the intervention affects their study skills, in particular their reading skills?

In the following sections, I will present the key components of CTBL and show how they triggered improvement in students' reading skills.

6.2.1 Analysis of the relationship between CTBL and Group Cohesion

The first variable is group cohesion and how this develops as a consequence of CTBL. In this section, I am going to focus on the relationship between CTBL approach and Group Cohesion, as the model in no. 1 of figure 6.1 suggests. While looking at all sources, including interviewees' responses and the students' self reports, I found most of the time that group members showed strong participation in their discussion through CTBL group tasks. Also many groups effectively completed their group work with good group cohesion and motivation to learn. In particular, some groups with strong group cohesion developed much better relationships amongst members than other groups.

Johnson & Johnson (1985) say that to develop group cohesion, the group members ought to be involved in verbal discussions, provide members' opinions, and encourage one another in achieving the individual's tasks. In particular, good 'Group Cohesion' refers to the "strength of the relationship linking the members to one another and to the group itself" (Forsyth, 1990:10). In this section, I used Forsyth's definition when identifying data, which indicated group cohesion. In addition, Dornyei (1997) argues that the more successful group work the students can achieve in cooperative learning, the greater group cohesion they can develop. Deutsch (1962) then argues that group cohesiveness is a positive influence on learners' motivation.

6.2.1.1 The presence of Group Cohesion - Linking the members to one another:

The following example shows the student's reflection concerning his unexpected learning experience that happened to him and his group. Though his language ability was not good enough to engage in group discussion, he could feel positive relationships with his other group members. The sense of belonging to the group evolved because of the help of other group members:

“或許是因為我的單字認識比較少，所以無法與其他人討論。他們幫助我比較大，有時候是因為他們解釋告訴我，我才可以能融入討論之中。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Yue)

“Perhaps, my vocabulary is so limited that I couldn't talk with others. **They (other members) help me much more than I did for them.** I could engage in their discussion because **they explained topics to me sometimes.**”

As indicated above, Yue obtained other members' help in a group discussion even though he did not participate very much due to his lack of language ability. He said that other member's explanatory assistance enabled him to bridge the gap between the difficult work and his limited vocabulary. It showed that his group experienced group cohesion via participating in group discussions with members' acceptance and assistance. In particular, Yue explicitly disclosed his weakness of limited vocabulary to hinder his language performance in a group. Yet, other members didn't exclude him as a team member, but offered help to explain aspects to him during the group process. In a cohesive group, members' acceptance and support is of great importance (Johnson & Johnson, 1985). The group acceptance of him allowed Yue to engage in group discussions. Without members' acceptance and support in a cohesive environment, it would be hard to obtain success (Johnson & Johnson, 1985). Therefore, his group worked as a whole and attempted to reach the group goal together through the efforts of all members.

In this case, Yue was limited in his language abilities, but he could feel the sense of belonging with other members because of their explanations to him while working together. In light of this point, we can see a positive relation through group dynamics in order to achieve group results. This is so because strong group cohesion shows a linkage to one another in a group, and enhances beneficial interaction to members with different levels of language abilities. There is another similar notion of linking the members to one another as follows:

“...藉由閱讀的課程討論，也可以認識朋友。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Chan)

“...**We could get acquainted with one another** by group reading discussion.”

In response to the consequence of good CTBL group work, Chan could relate favourably to his learning experiences with other members in class. He said that they 'could get acquainted with one another by group discussion.' In a group setting, Chan and his team would get to know each other by developing group cohesion through group discussion.

6.2.1.2 The presence of Group Cohesion-Linking the members to the group:

Another characteristic of CTBL group cohesion is directly related to the linkage of the members to the group. The interviewee, Yue, stated:

“組員相處融洽。下課後會一起去吃飯。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Yue)

“Members would get along with one another. (We) would have lunch together after class.”

Because of good group work experience, members would feel a sense of group togetherness by stating that 'members would get along with one another.' In this context, Yue could perceive the group togetherness not only in, but also outside of class. Hence, they formed a strong relationship outside of class and 'had lunch together after class.'

The following example shows the characteristics of good group cohesion inside the class:

“討論熱烈。” (Group Observation Sheet, Week 2, Group F)

“Enthusiastic verbal discussion.”

In this learning context, members in Group F experienced group discussion involvement with 'enthusiastic verbal discussion.' In particular, positive group interaction gave members' mutual strength in order to achieve group goals. 'Enthusiastic verbal discussion' is derived from the group working togetherness.

Aside from this example, two out of a total of five groups, Group C and Group F, frequently used the words, 'enthusiastic verbal discussion' a total of fifteen times in

their small-group observation sheets over a period of twelve weeks. In addition, four groups stated 'cooperative learning' six times, and 'often provided opinions to the group' six times from weekly group observation sheet.

Vigorous discussion amongst members of four groups: groups M, F, C, and N are seen as attempting to engage in their group tasks in class as follows:

"Our team actively **engages in discussion**, and we often **provide opinions** in group discussion." (Group Observation Sheet, Group C, Week 2)

In Group C, the team observer said that his group actively participated in group discussions in class. In addition, members providing their opinions showed that a good linkage existed among their discussions, which led to good team cohesion. In fact, there are 14 other instances in this research where students state that they were highly involved by providing their opinions to their respective groups.

To summarise, my results show that the development of group cohesion in a group process is of great significance. It has led to their greater participation in the group discussion in order to achieve their mutual goals. Williams & Burden (1997) state: "the person's interest or enthusiasm is activated, leading them to make a conscious decision to act in certain ways in order to achieve a particular goal related to the activity undertaken" (p.120). In this case, it is clear that the group's motivation was activated because of the development of group cohesion.

6.2.1.3 Group Cohesion caused by the CTBL strategy

The following case represents the relationship between group cohesion and CTBL technique:

"找到比較多的方法去閱讀，因為不會常常可以直接問旁邊的組員... 比較容易問的，比較經常討論的部分。" (Female Respondent in post-course interview, Shuhua)

"I found many ways to read. I could **directly ask other group members** whenever I didn't understand . . . Something is easy to ask, and it is **often discussed**..."

This development suggests that she could engage in the group by asking other students relevant questions about something to which she did not have an answer. She thus could ask easy questions in English, or questions which members discussed often.

Another student could relate to a similar group learning experience with the above respondent, Shuhua. He replied:

“覺得可以互相幫助，一起找答案...小組可以引起動機去討論...還有就是比較不會那麼悶，譬如說一個人看就比較會不懂。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, DaTong)

“I feel that (CTBL group work) could **help one another and seek answers together**...CTBL group work could **motivate (us) to discuss**. In addition, (CTBL **group reading**) is **less boring**. For example, **I could feel more understanding** the content of given material through group reading.”

DaTong stated the advantages of his CTBL experience by saying he felt the sense of linking of the members to one another by stating, “(it) could help one another and seek answers together.” Apart from that, he also brought up an important point that, “it could motivate us to team discussions.” Providing one’s own opinions to others in group discussions is a must to developing team cohesion and this point also suggests that good team work requires verbal discussion in group. In addition, within group work DaTong felt “less bored” while reading in a group, and he also made an explicit comparison between individual and group reading in favour of the latter: “I could feel more understanding” all because he could associate his good group learning experience with the help of other members through CTBL.

In addition, there were a total of eight observation worksheets, from Groups M, N, C, and F, which stated the consequences of good group work creating group cooperative learning because members in the group felt a sense of belonging to the team. That showed group cohesion was created because of good group work. To sum up, CTBL group work has a direct link with group cohesion.

I have explained the existence of *Group cohesion* and the relationship between *Group Cohesion and CTBL*. In the following section I address the causal link between *CTBL* and *Group efficacy*.

6.2.2 Analysis of the relationship between CTBL and Group Efficacy

The second variable is Group Efficacy. Apart from Group Cohesion, good CTBL group work also directly leads to Group Efficacy. In this section, I will focus on the relationship between CTBL and Group Efficacy, as the model in no. 3 of figure 6.1 suggests. According to Johnson & Johnson (1987), 'Group Efficacy' refers to "the expectation of successfully obtaining valued outcomes through the joint efforts of the group members" (p.146). That is to say, 'Group Efficacy' would be created once good CTBL group work exists. Therefore, the group would expect a better outcome with all members' efforts.

6.2.2.1 Group Efficacy Experience

In the following, the student, Gao, addressed how he and other members worked together to develop group efficacy. He explained:

小組中會有分配的工作，指定工作結束時，大家會一起把結果找出來。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Gao)

“There would be assigned jobs to do for everyone in our group. Before the allotted time was up, **all could achieve effective results together.**”

This respondent, Gao, clearly explained that everyone in his group was involved in certain reading assignments at least once. Through the medium of cooperative learning, every member on his team generated enough strength to complete their assignment and thus help to develop relationships among each other. In the end, he added that, “all could find the results together.” With the strength of help from one another, “finding the results together” was seen to present the linkage of his group members to one another and to the group itself.

The following interviewee reflected on her learning experience in the group with respect to positive learning results. She said:

“(嗯),就是做一些題目比較快了有改善。” (Female Respondent in post-course interview, Shu-hua)

“Hmm. Completing reading comprehension questions seems faster than before.” (Her reading speed has improved).

This suggests that it is the group which makes the task completion faster and thus more efficient. But she is probably also referring to her own individual reading speed.

In addition, a total of twenty three people said that their individual reading speeds progressed. In other words, good group work helped individual reading to become faster and more efficient because of group efficacy. See Table 6.1 regarding interviewee's opinions of whether CTBL group work favourably affected their reading speeds. Other data support this assumption because most students indicated on their group observation sheets that their reading speeds improved greatly. The result of Table 6.1 suggests that CTBL team-work indeed helps groups to enhance individual speed through the joint efforts of other members.

Next, there are six out of a total of eight interviewees replying to two questions about whether their reading speed improved through CTBL. I randomly selected students W and H from *Group M*, students J and E from *Group C*, student O from *Group N*, and student W from *Group F*. My two questions are related to how their reading speeds improved through group reading activities: “*Did CTBL help you to improve your reading speed?*” Each person answered the first question in the affirmative. The second question: “*On a scale from one to ten, what number would you give yourself in respect to improving your reading speed?*” The table, as shown in 6.1, presents the answers from six respondents out of eight interviewees. The other two interviewees couldn't provide the answers to this question due to time constraints during interviewing.

Table 6.1 Interview Questions List 1

	Student O Group N	Student W Group M	Student H Group M	Student J Group C	Student E Group C	Student W Group F
*Q1	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
*Q2	6 – 7	6	6	7	7	6-7

* Q1: Did the CTBL technique help you improve your reading speed?

* Q2: On a scale from one to ten, what number would you give yourself in respect to improving your reading speed?

Six respondents believed that CTBL improved their reading speed through the joint efforts of team members. This favourable response suggests a positive influence regarding CTBL.

Up to this point I have presented data, which show how students experienced the variables of group efficacy and how they describe this as being a consequence of CTBL group work. I have shown how this phenomenon corresponds to the theory of group work as presented by Johnson and Johnson. I will now analyse in more detail students' accounts of the techniques the groups used to be more effective.

The first technique is to be “calm and flexible.” Members in Group C had insightful thoughts with respect to the problem solving of the reading tasks via members' joint efforts:

冷靜思考，靈活運用。(week 7, Group C, Group worksheet)
(We) *think calmly* and practice with good *flexibility*

Members in Group C saw “think calmly” and “practice with good flexibility” as part of the group efficacy variables. This statement suggests that the techniques could help members learn efficiently.

The second technique, which very much helped members to learn efficiently through group reading:

“我們做題目時，是直接去看直接去猜，做完之後在去用翻譯機，其實先查字典不會比較方便，就是先猜之後再去查字典，意思不對就知道了，就是做一些題目比較快了，比以前改善。(Female Respondent in post-course interview, Shuhua)

“While we were doing reading questions, we **directly guessed what the words meant from the context** before checking in the electronic dictionary. In fact, I don't think that using the dictionary is convenient. That is to say, we **guessed from the context before checking the dictionary**. We can easily identify the meanings of words while checking. In so doing, (we) would read faster and much more accurately than before.”

Thus “guessing the meanings of words from the context of the material.” and checking words in the dictionary afterwards not before became a useful exercise in identifying and reinforcing the recognition of the correct meanings of words. This development suggests that they learned to read faster than ever before, everyone in her group could feel that his/her reading speed greatly improved. Her statement can thus be seen as testimony to a very effective technique.

In addition, a third technique also assisted students to learn efficiently through the process of group reading. Group M presented outcomes with members' strong involvement as follows:

列出很多答案，時間很快。答案正確性高。(Week 3, Group M, Group worksheet)

“**List as many answers as possible** regarding reading questions. **The answers were very interesting.**”

Group M stated that they listed as many answers as they could while reading in a group, although they found that time in group discussions went fast. The statement suggested that because members in Group M participated in strong group discussions there was good team efficacy. In addition, the group found that their discussion ran very fast due to time constraints, which the teacher required in class. These time limitations constitute an effective technique to help students read as a group. Members of Group M did not

fail because of these time restrictions. Instead, they could apply some reading skills by listing the possible answers. In so doing, this team found that their mutual productivity increased with their group efficiency. From this data we can see that members in group M working as a whole had an increased sense of self-efficacy and joint-efficacy. This development suggests that group M efficiently achieved their group tasks as explained in the students' accounts of the techniques they perceived to be particularly effective.

In summary, these results present details with regard to students' accounts of group efficacy. In the following section, I am going to use some examples to explain the relationship between CTBL and Group Efficacy.

6.2.2.2 Relationship between CTBL and Group Efficacy:

In order to examine the relationship between CTBL and Group Efficacy, the interviewees replied to the question, "What would good CTBL group work bring to your group?"

Chen, as I cite in a following paragraph talked about the strengths derived from a group by the use of CTBL. He stated that discussion with others helped him increase his reading speed and he used the words "faster," and "efficient" to explain the effectiveness of CTBL in that these group experiences helped him obtain successful results through joint efforts in a cooperative learning group.

Another interviewee had similar ideas of group efficacy:

閱讀速度會比較快。閱讀起來也比較能加強印象。就是對方有講過的話日後想起來，會比較有印象。(Focus Group 1 in post-course interview, Male, Joe)

"Reading speed to him is faster than before ... Reading (in a group) would help us to achieve longer retention than reading on his/her own."

First, Joe said that reading in a group increased his reading speed compared to solo efforts. Second, group reading helped him to maintain longer retention rates. Both of these statements suggest that group reading leads to group efficacy. The better (more cooperative) the group work the higher level of group efficacy reached. Compared to individual reading, Joe felt that group efforts resulted in longer retention rates.

In order to show the relationship between CTBL Group cohesion and Group Efficacy, we will consider the interviewee's reply to the question: "What would good CTBL group work bring to your group?" The following quotation presents a good example:

“跟別人討論比較快，有效率。” (Chen, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“Discussion with others becomes faster and efficient.”

Chen responded that team strength improves through the use of CTBL. He said that discussion with others helped him increase his reading speed and he used the words, “faster,” and “efficient” to explain the effectiveness of CTBL, which helped him to obtain successful results through mutual efforts in a cooperative learning group.

Another interviewee had similar ideas of group efficacy:

“閱讀速度會比較快。閱讀起來也比較能加強印象。就是對方有講過的話日後想起來，會比較有印象。” (Focus Group 1 in post-course interview, Male, Joe)

“Reading speed to him is faster than before ... Reading (in a group) would promote longer retention than reading on his/her own. That is to say, members' opinions would be stored in their memories with longer retention rates than before.”

First, Joe expressed that reading in a group made his reading speed faster than before. Second, group reading helped him maintain longer retention rates. Both statements suggest that group reading leads to better group work, and that the better the group work, the higher level of group efficacy. Compared to the individual reading, Joe felt that group reading produced longer retention rates, which thus helped him to read better. Joe expressed a view held by many people in other groups, in that good group experiences would help him to improve his reading through a team effort.

These transcripts and students' diaries support the existence of *Group Efficacy* (Variable 2) and the relationship between *Group Efficacy* and *CTBL*. In the following section I address the causal link between *Group Cohesion* and *Group Efficacy*.

6.2.3 Analysis of the relationship between Group Cohesion and Group Efficacy

As indicated above, Group Cohesion and Efficacy are derived from good CTBL group work. Therefore there is a co-existent relationship between these two variables, as the model in no. 4 of figure 6. 1 suggests. However, a weak link exists in this case because few students responded to my questions checking this assumption of the link between these two variables. In this study, CTBL group members hoped to gain greater learning skills by working together towards the same goals. This would demonstrate group cohesion during the group learning processing thus expediting the learning process.

6.2.3.1 Examining the relationship between Group Cohesion and Group Efficacy:

In the following example we can see interviewee's reflection of his/her group learning experience:

“跟別人討論比較快，有效率。藉由閱讀的課程討論，也可以認識朋友。”

(Chen, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“Discussion with others becomes faster and more efficient and we can also...get acquainted with one another easily.”

Chen related to his positive group learning experiences by saying that mutual discussions made group work fast and efficient while also saying that reading discussions helped team members “to get acquainted with others.” This quote implied that Group Efficacy is established once Group Cohesion is created by linking members to one another.

Another similar example also demonstrates the cause and effect relationship between these two concepts:

熱烈參與討論，快速完成作業。(Group Observation Sheet, Week 9, Group F)

This session involved **enthusiastic verbal discussion** and **fast completion of our group work**.

Team members eagerly shared their opinions with each other because of their '*enthusiastic*' group cohesion and effective verbal discussions all of which provided strong team efficacy.

Group Cohesion and Group Efficacy can also be shown by selecting a female student's response. She was one of only three females out of nineteen students in this study. Shuhua stated that good group experience through CTBL indeed helped her feel that she belonged to the group and that she would also have a positive effect on her team.

“找到比較多的方法去閱讀，因為不會常常可以直接問旁邊的組員... 比較容易問的，比較經常討論的部分。(嗯)就是做一些題目比較快了，有改善。” (Female Respondent in post-course interview, Shuhua)

“I found many ways to read and I could **directly ask other group members often** when I don't understand. Something became easy to ask about, and we often discussed matters in this way. . . In addition we **answered some reading questions seemingly much faster than ever.**”

Through the strength of CTBL techniques, Shuhua could find herself motivated to read in as many ways as possible. Her statement implies that good group cohesion resulted from good class reading experiences. She found that “directly asking other group members” could help her reading comprehension better and it was “something easy to ask,” and, “something they discussed often” because of members' doubts and questions in their minds.

The sense of ease indicates group cohesion. It seemed natural for her to engage other members of her group by asking them questions via oral discussion thus showing good group cohesion. According to Shuhua, asking members' opinions regarding working as a whole became another way of benefiting from team work, which caused group efficacy.

There are also other examples demonstrating a direct relation between Group cohesion and Group Efficacy:

討論速度快，答案正確性高，大家都有提供意見。(Group Observation Sheet, Group C, week 2)

These team discussions proceeded quickly and received most correct answers from most of our opinions through discussion.

Members in Group C engaged in team work with members often providing their personal opinions thus resulting in quick completion of their work. It indicates strong group cohesion with efficacious oral discussions leading to successful outcomes, in which the group received most correct answers. This development thus implies strong expectations among all members exercising mutual efforts to speed up group success. In addition, every one in the group spoke and provided his/her own opinions that group efficacy is caused by good group cohesion. Group C established positive relations between Group Cohesion and Group Efficacy.

Up to this point I have presented a few examples to show how students experienced different the relationship between group cohesion and group efficacy both of which have been shown to relate to the theory of cooperative learning.

My previous examples present a weak causal link, as the model in no. 4 of figure 6.1 suggests, *between Group Cohesion and Group Efficacy*. I will now begin to adapt the variables from Gardner and Tremblay (1995) to support the proposed variables in my model (See figure 6.1). The following section addresses the relationship among *group cohesion, group efficacy* and *member's positive attitudes toward their learning situations*.

6.2.4 Analysis of the Relationship among Group Cohesion and Members' Attitudes toward the Learning Situation

6.2.4.1 Experiencing positive attitudes

First I will present data which illustrate how students described positive attitudes and how their perceptions were formed and directed by the various dimensions of classroom language learning. The classroom experience can be categorised according to three dimensions: 1). Materials used; 2). Relations with teacher and classmates; and 3). Activities and tasks.

1) Materials used to support L2 Reading

First, class reading tasks and materials directly influence students' learning interests. Williams (1986) develops the idea of using interesting materials as the first of the top ten rules in teaching foreign language reading. He explicitly states "Interest is vital, for it increases motivation, which in turn is a significant factor in the development of reading speed and fluency" (p.42). Even though there are a wide variety of materials for learners to read, interest is a great influence in the second language learners' motivation to read. The more interesting the materials are, the greater the motivation to read.

1-A. Interesting because of Content

Student, Zhixong, stated the idea of interesting materials because he found it fun to read:

"The comic books are so popular. I think 內容 **very interesting**." 有些還會令人會心一笑呢 (Zhixong, Male student's diary, week 3)

The comic books are so popular. I found **the reading content very interesting** and some of it could **make people laugh**.)

Zhixong stated he found this type of reading indeed drew his strong attention because of material which induced laughter. On the other hand, he was not motivated to read traditional materials. Instead, those items motivated him to read which interested him and provided enjoyment to read. The contents of the stories in the comics stimulated him. Zhixong thus found himself enjoying reading interesting items and he stated that the contents made not only him, but also other people laugh. It suggested that his attitude toward reading materials seemed very interesting and positive.

There were a total of 15 out of 19 students who reported similar feelings because they found great interests and pleasure in the contents of reading materials. Other students stated that interesting story contents made their experience imaginative and pleasant. Therefore, interesting materials not only led to students' positive attitudes toward reading, but also created a fun atmosphere when they read.

This factor thus encourages learners to develop further motivation concerning the learning of second languages (Day and Bamford, 1998).

1-B. Content which is Useful in Our Daily Lives

I asked one interviewee what type of reading material he preferred among 12 topics presented to him and he responded:

“喜歡食物的那篇…因為最近越來越多的餐廳用英文的廣告報紙上登出，而且這方面的資訊可以幫助未來如果要出國，可能會用到的部分。不管是什麼英文性質，一定是頻率最高的。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Gao)

“(I like) the theme of food. . . It is because there are **more and more restaurant advertisements In English newspapers**. Also, **this type of information can help (me) since I can use this input when I study** abroad in the near future. **Food is the most popular one** of all topics.”

First, he noticed that the most popular English newspaper advertisements were those relating to restaurants. This is likely because the notion of food is of great importance to people's daily lives and this point explains why he valued the usefulness of this particular motivational reading. This student also felt that the necessity of preparing to study abroad in the near future motivates him to read.

The following student, Luo, felt that the availability of perceived necessary information motivates them to read:

“出租”這個課題對大學生來說極為重要，因為它就與我們的生活相關，藉由這次的上課讓我學到如何選擇要租的房子，甚至可以租外國人的房子！非常實用！所以我很喜歡這次的課題！ (Luo, Male student's diary, week 5).

The theme, 'Rent', is extremely important to university students because it is related to our daily lives and **I learned, in this class, how to rent properties**. **With my present level of English I can even rent from a foreigner**. **I like this topic very much** since it involves use of a necessary skill.

Luo chose the topic of rental properties as his preference for reading material in class. In particular, he was increasingly concerned with the issue of “Rent” since this topic is close to his daily life as a college student. He found it useful because he also learned how to deal with the practical issue of renting. After obtaining this knowledge, he now knows how to communicate with foreign landlords.

Nine students used the word “useful” in their class diaries. To them, the most popular themes for practical reasons to read are such as food, rental properties, rules, regulations, and comic books, etc. One student mentioned that the knowledge of rental issues could develop his general ideas and help him to cope with some issues with his current landlord. For example, he now knows how to get assistance if the appliances in his apartment needed to be fixed immediately. Another student found the theme of “Rules and Regulation” useful because actual practice in class was essential for him to read before starting his journey on the streets or roads. Another student was interested in comic books. Prior to the lesson, he did not think he could have opportunities to read it in class. Now it is so real to him that he could choose comic books to read in his daily life.

2) Relations with Teacher/ Classmate Interfacings

2-A. Student' Mutual Help Activities in Class

Normally, students' reading attitudes are derived from the class environment. In particular, the interactions between student-student and student-teacher directly affect the learners' feelings toward reading motivations. In group work of CTBL, students would easily gain more opportunities to communicate with their teacher or other group members in class.

For example: The following student experienced enjoyment in reading during class because of his positive experiences with his group members:

“比較喜歡像現在這樣。上學期大班上課，這學期小班上課，而且可以與旁邊的同學討論。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Gao)

“(I) enjoyed this semester better than last where I was in a big class relating among each other as a whole; however, this term I am in a small class with groups... and (I) can discuss material with other classmates next to me.”

In this quotation, Gao stated that he enjoyed his group experience this semester more than the whole class of last term because this semester not only were there fewer people than the previous entire class, but also because group discussions would help him in talking to his team members. His own words, “can discuss with other classmates next to

me,” imply that he could expect and enjoy talking and sharing learning experiences with others. This development allowed him to have a positive feeling toward the language-learning situation.

Another good example also relates to the same concept:

I enjoy reading items and share my doubts with my classmates. Another reason that I enjoy reading is I can learn many words and sentences. In summary, I like the class because **I can communicate this semester with other people.** (Qian, Male's student's diary, week 1)

Through cooperation, Qian increased his positive attitude toward reading. He stated that he would enjoy reading not only through the experiences of sharing with his classmates, but also by encountering the learning of many words and sentences.

With the assistance of other team members, he found reading enjoyable because he could learn things from people this semester.

In addition, he said “I can communicate with other people.” This point suggests that he liked to talk and speak to other class members, not just read by himself. So, learning from one another motivated him to have positive feelings toward his learning conditions, because in the CTBL learning environment no one is isolated. Most students can find enjoyment in speaking or talking to one another in a second language classroom situation.

In addition, the following student showed his positive learning attitudes. In particular, his lower-level reading capacity didn't limit his learning ability because his group members assisted with his learning difficulties:

“或許是因為我的單字認識比較少，所以無法與其他人討論。他們幫助我比較大，有時候是因為他們解釋告訴我，我才可以能融入討論之中。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, DaTong)

“Perhaps, my vocabulary is so limited that I couldn't discuss anything (reading content) with others. **They (other team members) help me much more than I did them.** Therefore, I could engage in their discussions because they explained things to me sometimes.”

In this case, the student, DaTong, could relate to his fellow members because they helped him with his study difficulties. At first, he was concerned about his reading ability by stating “I couldn’t talk with others due to my limited vocabulary.” This affected his capability in group discussion with others. However, he found his fellow students helped by explaining the situation to him. Through his special learning experience, DaTong could internalize things through other group members’ explanations. Accordingly, he also joined group discussions and activities because of the acceptance and assistance of his fellow classmates.

2-B. Teacher/ Student Working Situation

The following student, Buji, stated that the teacher helped him to speak English:

In this class I spoke English with my teacher. (Buji, Male student’s diary, week 5)

Buji explained his learning experience through practicing speaking to his teacher. In CTBL, many students can practice speaking a foreign language not only with other members or classmates, but also with their teacher. In addition, the student/teacher classroom situation seems to be close in nature. A total of more than fifteen students stated that they had experiences in speaking English with their teacher thus providing useful practice opportunities during which the teacher can check students’ understanding of their class tasks.

Another case also represents a similar notion of teacher/student working situation

The teacher always walks around the classroom in case someone needs help in focusing on their assignments and speaking in English. (Observer’s note, week 2)

This supervisory activity provides a good method to observe how students react to one another in finishing their group tasks. In addition, the students can ask for some help in order to understand their reading activities while the teacher walks around the class, thus monitoring whether they understood the correct use of English (Day & Bamford, 1998).

3) Activities & Tasks in L2 Reading

The class engaged in group discussions after the students completed their reading assignments. Because interesting materials aroused students' strong desires to do their group tasks, team discussion usually would involve a great deal of time in sharing their viewpoints with one another, as the following student explains in his experience with his group when doing team assignments:

3-A. Stimulating & Inspiring Thoughts

Today's activity was very interesting in that we wrote a story explanation after looking at a picture. Although our team only had two persons, we still finish our work in a short time. Our group not only wrote a story, but I wrote one myself. **This excellent activity inspired our thoughts** and I hope that we can do this again. Since this semester, I feel that there has been a very big change in this class. (Zhong, Male student's diary, Week 3)

What we did today was very interesting. In particular, we members look at pictures and then wrote down the entire story. Although our team only had two persons, we still finished the work in a short time. I hope that **we will have this kind of activity again.** I have felt a huge change in the class since semester. (Gi, Male student's diary, Week 3)

These students reflected his positive attitudes toward group activities. Both of them in his group completed a story specifically because of the idea of creating a group story based on an original tale. He additionally also tried to use this concept to write his own story in class. Zhong thought that this task required creativity, which thus inspired him in the learning process. His hope to "do this again" shows a positive attitude toward his learning materials and tasks.

Gi and Zhong enjoyed current EFL learning experiences compared to the study they had prior to this semester. All in all, they both enjoyed reading and writing these types of creative stories, and the concomitant activities, which motivated them to learn more. They had had many favourable feelings toward his class since the semester started with the CTBL learning approach.

3-B. Stimulating Learners' Creative Ideas

The following student commented favourably regarding those tasks which increased his motivation to read:

I like today's lesson very much because comic books are my favorite type of reading. 這次的內容比較不一樣，將原本以編排的順序的 comic 重新排序並編故事是非常有趣的點子!! 這不僅能增進我們的閱讀能力，更能使我們思考，並由查字典的過程學習更多的 vocabulary. **They are very interesting.** (Xingming, Male student's diary, week 3)

(**I liked today's lesson very much** because comic books are my favourite type of reading because the content is very different from other material. Our group work involved rearranging the story of the comic strip with the same pictures in different order, and to re-create another new story, which was a very funny idea. **It not only enhanced our reading abilities (in the learning process), but also stimulated our thoughts. Also (we) learned much more interesting vocabulary by consulting the dictionary.**)

First, Xinming stated that this type of reading material, comic strips, drew his attention very much, thus increasing motivation to read. Furthermore, he also stressed his enjoyment of achieving a group task as a team goal, during which he also realized that this type of task was creative enough to challenge his thinking processes in working with other group members. Traditionally students with low-level reading abilities were not expected to achieve reading success at higher levels (Day and Bamford, 1998).

Through cooperation, he discovered that he could attain reading success in many different ways. One example of this achievement was the funny idea of performing the group task through rearranging the picture orders and creating another story out of it. In so doing, he consulted his dictionary to find some new words to create a story and by so doing, he also learned much more than he expected, including his desire to use the dictionary. Through this method, varied uses of reading materials lead to an unexpected way to increase his desire to read more and think in a creative way within his group. His learning attitude toward the reading materials thus engendered in him positive attitudes toward learning more.

Another student would relate to the above student's learning experience:

I like reading comic books so I felt this class was fun. Today, (I) read various comic strips, and also read another story after changing the pictures in different order. We (members) had to make up a new story based on the same pictures but in different orders. **I felt so good**

because the story had to include a lot of creative ideas and thus interesting content before we wrote another funny story . . . In this class, I learned that, in order to read comic books, it is not always totally necessary to follow the pictures. (Yang, Male students' diary, week 3)

Yang found enjoyment in achieving a group task as a team goal. Through the learning process, he also realized that this type of group activity was so creative that his thinking was challenged in working with his fellow members. For example, he found it helpful that rearranging the order of the pictures stimulated his ideas to create a new story through this group work. These types of activities lead to an unexpected way of creating ideas, and also motivated him to read more. Then, his group had to make up a new story with different comic strips sequences, thus calling on his individual thoughts and ideas.

More than ten group sheets showed that team discussions involved high levels of enthusiasm. Four out all five groups benefited from their team results because of their establishment of positive relationships while helping one another.

Up to this point I have shown how the students expressed their positive attitudes towards various dimensions of the classroom, and we have also seen that these attitudes are a consequence of the choice of materials and activities by the teacher and the relationships the teacher had with students. In the next sub-section I will show that cohesive group experiences cause positive attitudes that increase team efficacy.

6.2.4.2 Analysis of the Relationship between Group Cohesion and Attitudes Towards the Learning Situation

In this section, we see that students' positive attitudes towards a classroom language environment resulted from group cohesion.

Funny. 討論熱烈。 (Group Observation Sheet, Group C, week 3)

(Funny and enthusiastic oral discussion involved.)

The observation sheet of Group C shows that members participated in strong oral team discussions. The group's choice of the words, "enthusiastic oral discussion" suggests group members actively engaged in group discussion indicating that team cohesion definitely existed in Group C. The word "Funny" in this case implies "positive group

atmosphere derived from positive and cooperative group discussion” Here the students read a lot once the group created interest in reading toward their learning environment.

Another good example of a positive learning situation also existed in Group N:

“**Best.** We talk to others and **we do our best.**” (Group Observation Sheet, Group N, week 1)

In week one, members reflected on their group experience with positive attitudes by stating “talking to others and doing our best.” “Talk” and “do” both are action words. Members would engage in team discussion and hopefully exert their best efforts with one another. The observer of Group N used the word, “best” to describe a group learning environment implying that favourable feelings prevailed among members with positive interactions derived from mutual cohesion.

Due to limited evidence to support the link between these two variables, it is probable to assume that there is a weak link between the relationship of *Group Cohesion and Positive Attitudes*.

6.2.5 Analysis of the Relationship between Group Efficacy and Attitude Towards the Learning Situation

In this section, I demonstrate how students' positive attitudes towards classroom language environment were caused by group efficacy, as the model in no. 6 of figure 6.1 suggests. The following case presents the relationship between the respondent's group experience and his attitudes towards his learning situation:

“覺得可以互相幫助，一起找答案…還有就是比較不會那麼悶，譬如說 一個人看就比較會看不懂。” (Focus Group 2 in post-course interview, Male Respondent, Hong)

“(I) feel that (members) can **mutually help** one another and seek answers while working together... and (cooperative learning group) is less boring than self study. For example, **the individual could not quite understand** the meaning of the content when reading on his own.”

Hong said that his other team mates “could mutually help one another” because of good CTBL group experience. This team formed a strong link amongst one another as the

students were seeking answers while working together, thus implying that the members utilized “mutual help” to form strong group cohesion, and that this concept helped them to “seek answers together.” In this case, group efficacy was created by members’ joint efforts.

Hong also stressed that he preferred teamwork, which helped him to gain a better understanding of the reading tasks, saying that he found it very boring to learn something on his own. In other words, Hong felt that team cooperative learning was less boring than self-study. The fundamental idea here is that Hong had feelings of positive learning attitudes towards language learning once group efficacy existed

Group F reflected the effectiveness of CTBL group learning experience:

Great. 上臺報告很大聲，熱烈參與。 (Group Observation Sheet, Group F, week 2)

(Great. Our group **loudly reacted on stage**, and **that activity showed members’ enthusiastic participation.**)

First, members of Group F performed with “loudly reacted on stage.” Second, all members engaged in group performance with “enthusiastic participation.” Both statements evidenced the effectiveness of team experience in group C where the team observer used the word “great,” which implied that a successful outcome creates members’ positive attitudes towards a good language learning environment. That is to say, group efficacy leads to positive attitudes towards the language learning situation.

Another similar statement is this:

快速，歡樂。 (Group Observation Sheet, Group C, week 3)

(**Work efficiently and have fun.**)

Group C echoed the effectiveness of CTBL group work experience. It was a short, but concise message. By stating “efficiently working” together, it suggests positive outcomes brought up by members’ joint efforts. In addition, members in group C felt their joyfulness working with one another. It implies that members’ positive attitudes towards group learning situation are created once good group performance is established.

In a nutshell, there are some limited examples existing among students' diaries and other materials to support the assumption of the link between group efficacy and positive attitudes. Keeping all of this in mind, it cannot be said that there is a strong linkage between the relationship of *Group efficacy and Students' Positive attitudes toward their learning situation*.

6.2.6 Analysis of the relationship between CTBL and Members' Attitudes toward the learning situation

The idea of using interesting materials is indicated by Williams (1986) in 6.2.4. Here I will only present data which illustrates how positive attitudes were described by students and the various dimensions of classroom language learning, towards which the positive attitudes were directed throughout good CTBL group work, as the model in no. 2 of figure 6.1 suggests.

This section differs from 6.2.4 because as students experiencing CTBL group work gain more interest, this leads to individuals with highly positive attitudes towards their environment. However, in 6.2.4, with students experiencing only group cohesion, there appeared to be insufficient evidence of them feeling interested in their group learning environment. In the following, the classroom experience can be categorised according to three dimensions: 1. Materials used; 2. Relations with classmates; and 3. Activities and Tasks.

6.2.6.1 Students experiencing CTBL and Learning Materials

In the following case, the respondent, Hong, could tell to what extent his positive attitudes toward learning developed from experiencing good CTBL group work:

“...還有就是比較不會那麼悶，譬如說一個人看就比較會看不懂。” (Focus Group 2, Male Respondent in post-course interview, Hong)

“... and (CTBL group work) is less boring than self study. For example, the individual could not quite understand the meaning of the reading content when one read on his own.”

This interviewee, Hong, also responded that he would feel rather bored while reading on his own rather than as part of a CTBL group reading class. By implication, CTBL group work can thus help the individual feel more motivated to learn and to understand better the meaning of the reading material.

Another interviewee, Joe, expressed his viewpoint with regards to his perception of CTBL group work as follows:

“閱讀速度會比較快。閱讀起來也比較能加強印象。就是對方有講過的話日後想起來，會比較有印象。” (Focus Group 1 in post-course interview, Male, Joe)

“**Reading speed to me is faster than before ... Reading (in a group)** helps me to retain the material **longer** than reading on my own. That is to say the opinions of my fellow team members would remain in my memory **longer**.”

Joe also said that his reading speed improved during group learning sessions. Through CTBL group work, he could store other members' opinions in his memory when he/ she discussed his/ her thoughts within the group thus helping him to comprehend the reading content better. By implication, Joe agreed with Hong's opinion concerning CTBL group work meaning that good CTBL teamwork will bring better understanding and longer retention capabilities to learners.

6.2.6.2 Students Experiencing the Relationship Between CTBL and Class Teamwork

The following section concerns to recognize to what extent there exists a relationship between CTBL group work and interactions among classmates:

”跟別人討論比較快，有效率。藉由閱讀的課程討論，也可以認識朋友。” (Chen, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“**Group discussions** with others seem **much faster** and efficient than ever. It can also help us to **get acquainted with one another** by interactions concerning the reading curriculum.”

Via CTBL group work, Chen felt he received positive results by saying, “Group discussions with others seem much faster and more efficient than ever.” In addition, he could make friends via these group discussions within the process of reading. By

implication, good CTBL group work helps him to engage in group discussion and also to make friends with others.

Another respondent, Yue, had a similar experience with that of Chen:

“組員相處融洽。下課後會一起去吃飯。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Yue)

“**Members got along well with one another.** (We) had lunch together after class.”

Among the best results of CTBL group work, Yue replied that “(We) would have lunch together after class because members of our group could work well and get along with one another.” Effective CTBL group work thus creates positive relationships among members in-and-out class.

Another group echoed the previous respondents while commenting on the results of their team work:

We talked to others and we **did our best.** (Observation group sheet, Group C, week 1)

By implication, there is a cause and effect relationship between CTBL group work and the interfacing of group members.

6.2.6.3 Students Experiencing CTBL activities/ tasks:

Here we focus on the relationship among CTBL group work, reading activities and tasks. The following respondent, Sheng said concerning CTBL group work and CTBL activities:

“就我們小組（片刻），其實對討論答案互相分享吧！大家一起。為同一個目標而彼此互助，好像沒有競爭性。” (Sheng, Male respondent in post-course interview)

“For our group we **enjoyed** mutual sharing among us to discuss answers through group discussions. We all worked together and **helped one another toward the same objective** without destructive competition among our team members.”

We can thus see group discussions as an activity during which members learn how to assist one another and work together as a whole. By implication in the word ‘enjoy’,

good CTBL group work leads to members' positive feelings towards producing meaningful results through CTBL activities.

Another interviewee, Joe, stated an experience similar to that of Sheng:

“比較有興趣的是看圖片說故事。如查單字的遊戲，或是由文章之中找答案等。”

(Focus Group 1 in post-course interview, Male, Joe)

“It is **interesting** to **view pictures and tell stories**. (We like) the games for looking up words in the dictionary or learning answers from the reading content.”

Amongst all reading activities/tasks, Joe said that “reading pictures and telling stories” interests him. Besides, he also found other games/activities interesting, including consulting the dictionary for the meanings of new words and also by discerning the answers from the reading content. Students thus experienced positive relationships between CTBL group work and CTBL activities/ tasks.

Good CTBL group work experiences thus develop team members' positive attitudes toward the learning situation, while motivating the individuals' decisions to read in a foreign language. The abundant evidence we found in existing data supports the relationships between CTBL group work and positive attitudes. It suggests that there is a likelihood of a strong link, as the model in no. 2 of the figure suggests, between the relationship of *CTBL Group work* and *Positive attitudes*.

6.2.7 Analysis of the relationship between members' attitudes toward the learning situation and self-efficacy

In this section, I will focus on the relationship between Members' Positive Attitudes toward the Learning Situation and Self-efficacy, as the model in no. 7 of figure 6.1 suggests. Because of their strong participation in group work, the CTBL study group members found themselves with increasing language abilities, which were needed in achieving team goals. Members gained a greater sense of efficacy with strong expectations to achieve successful group outcomes specifically because they were empowered to achieve group targets (Johnson & Johnson, 1987).

Here we have highlighted second language readers' self-efficacy as one of the variables in the model. Guthrie et al. (1999) state that, "Where self-efficacy is indeed a constituent of reading motivation, it has also been distinguished and examined separately" (p.236). Examining "self-efficacy" for reading refers to "people's judgement of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks, and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine their choice of activities" (Bandura, 1997: 86-87). In so doing, low-level language learners need to establish high self-perception by choosing their capable tasks to practice in their groups. Via CTBL, students will gain more opportunities to develop their language abilities in teams, and in so doing they will gradually adjust their learning abilities to cope with setbacks as they learn to read better each time. In this way they can build their sense of self-efficacy during this learning process.

6.2.7.1 Students Experiencing Self-efficacy

The following results present two students from one of the two-group interviews reflecting on their past experiences prior to this study. They also explained how they judged their own behaviour and performance with respect to reading related group activities, in terms of how they viewed unexpected group experiences, which stimulated their willingness to take part in their learning group, compared to their previous learning environment. One team member described his self-belief in terms of promoting his speaking skills in the group:

“可以用英文問問題。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Chang)

“(I) could **use English while asking questions** in the group.”

Here the key phrase is “I could...,” and another group member carried out his action in speaking English in the group-settings and describes it with the same key phrase:

“可以用英文討論。” (Male Respondent in post-course interview, Ming Zhong)

“(I) could **speak** English in a [group] discussion.”

Both of these quotations suggest that the cooperative learning environment indeed enhances learners' confidence both in their speaking abilities and also in achieving

success in reading related activities. Both students found they could use English to communicate with other team members and they thus valued their class experiences, which helped them to increase their speaking ability as they worked to achieve group tasks. In addition, another student wrote in his diary:

“The class was interesting for me today. **I could spend** a great deal of time in developing **my imagination to write** a story from those comic pictures that I like. **I also was able to discuss the work with my team-mates.**” (Yi, Female student's diary, week 3)

Again the key phrase here is “I could/was able...” and indeed, students with increasing language abilities were able to decide whether they wanted to learn more in class thus inducing a positive outcome from their efforts. First, he said that he enjoyed the class. Therefore, he could feel free to think and write a story in class. With his developing communicative competency, he could use English to talk with his classmates about his interests, and also master his speaking skills by practising with other group members. These specific tasks, which he performed in class, such as thinking, writing, speaking, and reading, proved that he was confident of his own ability, his self-efficacy, in the CTBL learning process.

These few students commonly used the word, “can,” which meant they believed that their speaking and writing abilities were helping them to attain better academic performance levels because these individuals felt a sense of self-efficacy, and were able to carry out particular actions, and they proved they could do it. Therefore, they felt a strong sense of self-autonomy and determination to practice speaking in front of group members. The implication here is that these learners are not likely to fail once a strong sense of efficacy is established (Dornyei, 1994).

Other students in their diaries stated that they felt more competent than previously in class. For example, one student could practice speaking more English in class while another could learn how to think in order to write an interesting story on his own; the others could learn proper usage in order to tell English-speaking people about street and road directions in public. These results show that low-level students improved their writing and speaking abilities thus generating a sense of greater competency and belief in their own language abilities.

The suggestion is that many students felt more competent than they had in the past because of the CTBL learning process. Cooperative learning is thus seen as an effective way for the group members to execute difficult tasks through joint working efforts (Johnson & Johnson, 1985). This sense of self-efficacy can be clearly proved by the students' assessment of their own learning results in which the learners' efforts and persistence were deeply rooted in their strong belief of the team learning process.

Up to this point I have presented students' accounts of their growing self-efficacy. In the following sub-section I will show how *self-efficacy* is caused by *positive attitudes towards the learning situation*.

6.2.7.2 Positive Attitudes toward the Learning Situation

In this section, I am going to present data to show that students see a causal relationship between positive attitudes and self-efficacy, as the model in no. 7 of the figure suggests. Members of a group with positive attitudes toward learning can improve their language abilities. In particular, once a given person feels himself/herself to have team members' support, the development of a sense self-efficacy will progress. He or she will become more confident to carry out their individual tasks once these favourable feelings toward learning are established.

The following example demonstrates the student, Fuguai, showing his enjoyment in L2 materials and gaining a sense of self-efficacy:

"The class was interesting for me this day. I could use my imagination to write a story from pictures using whichever comic books I like and I could talk with my team-mates for interesting ideas and to practice my English." (Fuguai, Student diary, week 3)

Fuguai said that he felt that today's lesson was interesting. He used the word "can" four times while emphasizing his increasing language abilities. For example, he "can" write a story by picture, "can" think of the comic book that he likes, "can" discuss interesting ideas with team mates' and "can" increase his English ability through further use of the language.

Interesting contents in the reading material would increase his competency to develop his learning abilities.

In so doing, he would feel “special” (more enthusiastic) towards learning in class. Here we have the concept that his learning abilities increase once positive attitudes towards the reading environment are established.

Again here the key phrase is “I can..,” and another group member described his increasing English skills as follows:

“I felt very interested because the theme of the reading material is extremely appealing **and I can also talk to other people about which comic books they like. I can also learn some new words from this material.** I like to read comic books because they make me relax. Some comic books were very funny and very imaginative.” (Chen, Male Student’s diary, Week 3)

Chen said that he enjoyed reading and used the word “can” three times. For example, he “can know other people,” “can learn some new words...,” “it could make me...,” etc. These good reading materials would increase his joy in obtaining certain abilities to learn new things. In addition, he used the word, “like,” two times, and “interesting” one time thus implying that his positive attitudes towards the learning situation are increasing because of reading materials which are full of “fun” and “imagination.” Chen’s joyfulness (positive attitudes) led to his increasing language abilities in learning new things (self-efficacy). That is to say, positive attitudes towards the learning situation (variable 3) create self-efficacy (variable 4).

Other than Chen, two other students also had similar statements in their learning attitudes towards reading situations because they could learn and practice their English with other members in class. Another student, Qiao expressed that his favourable feelings towards reading in class in a different way regarding improvement of his learning abilities:

“The comic strips develop our imaginations in creating new stories. **We can practice writing with our ideas.**” (Qiao, Male Student’s diary, Week 3)

Qiao expressed his favourable feelings towards the reading class in different ways. He said that the reading material, comic strips, allowed members in his group to creatively use their imaginations in association with the original story. This idea suggests that the group had positive attitudes towards their learning materials and they could thus

practice writing in class in order to make up a new story on their own. This statement implies that Qiao and other members increased a sense of self-efficacy to write their ideas upon creation of their positive attitudes towards the second language class.

Up to this point I have presented data which demonstrates how students experienced the relationship between Self-efficacy and Positive Attitudes, and how they described this situation as being a combination of these two variables, both of which have been shown to relate to the theory of cooperative learning.

The above mentioned presents a causal link between Self-efficacy and Positive Attitudes. The following section is to address the relationship between *Goal setting and Members' positive attitudes toward the learning situation*.

6.2.8 Analysis of the relationship between Members' Attitudes toward Learning Situation and Desire to Learn

This section will focus on the relationship between *Members' Attitudes toward the Learning Situation* and students' *Desire to Learn*, as the model in no. 9 of figure 6.1 suggests. At the beginning of class, according to my observations, observed most second language learners of the study read in class slowly. After they practiced reading tasks for a 12-week period, the evidence has shown that most students felt a positive change after the intervention of CTBL. That is to say, students' positive attitudes towards their L2 learning situation created their desire to learn more.

For example, not only were many eager to know more about reading skills while they read, but others would practice reading in order to overcome the difficulties they had frequently faced. It is because their favourable feelings towards their learning environment affected their desire to learn.

6.2.8.1 Experience of "Desire to learn"

The following result sets up a good example how the individual feels the desire to learn in class:

“字彙太少，感覺很想多看一些英文讀物...像是短篇文章或是廣告。” (DaTong, Male respondent in post-course interview)

“(I felt) **lack of** vocabulary, and **I want to read a little more English (article)**, such as short articles or advertisements.”

First, DaTong felt he had limited vocabulary while reading. He said that he “wanted to read a little more English.” “Wanted to read” suggests that his reading desire motivated him to learn more. It indicates that he would need more vocabulary while reading, and that shows his attention with regard to his lack of enough vocabulary while reading. In addition, DaTong gives some examples, which would help him read more. He preferred to begin with short passages or advertisements.

Apart from DaTong, two other students had similar statements stating a “desire to learn.” Like DaTong, they found themselves with strong desires to read by stating “let me learn more.” They also wanted to start with some short and easy passages first.

In the next case the student said that he wanted to read more because:

“...讀難一點的文章，文章的文法可以是國中的文法，但結構是簡單的。”
(Chang, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“... **read more difficult articles**. Grammar of the passage could be **simple grammar** we used to read in middle school, but sentence structure is simple.”

Chang felt that he wanted to read more difficult articles. This sentence implied that he had a desire to read because he wanted to take challenges to read more difficult material. For example, he would like to read something with simple grammar and simple sentence structure. In so doing, it would motivate him to read more though his grammar and sentence structure remained at beginning level.

Up to this point I have presented some examples showing students' desire to learn, especially “the desire to read more.” In the following sub-section I will show how this “desire to learn more” is caused by the ‘Positive attitudes towards the learning situation’ as the model proposed.

6.2.8.2 Positive Attitudes Lead to Desire to Learn More

In this section, I select some examples, which signified there is a causal relationship between positive attitudes and desire to learn.

The following student, Liang, viewed this class with positive attitudes and this led to his strong “desire to do” the reading activity again:

“Not only our team write a story, but I write one myself. This activity can inspire our thoughts, so I think that this is a very excellent activity. **I hope that we can do this again.**” (Liang, Male Student's diary, Week 3)

Liang stated that his group had completed a story together and so had he. Because of his positive attitudes towards the reading activities, he would state that, “this is a very excellent activity.” Now, he would like to do “this” again and which implies that his strong desire to learn towards reading is caused by the positive attitudes.

Another student, Ma, would echo Liang's view of “desire to learn more:”

“I enjoy reading it and share my doubts with my classmates. Another reason that **I enjoy reading is that I want to learn more English.**” (Ma, Male Student's Diary, Week 2)

Ma stated that he enjoyed reading class because he could share his doubts with other team mates. This statement implied that he had a positive attitude toward his learning environment. Because of this, his enjoyment to learn with other classmates motivated him want to learn more. The notion, “enjoy reading” would lead him to have a desire to “learn more English.”

Qi also expected to learn more in the future class:

“In this class, I looked many ads about rental properties. These properties have all sorts of offers, which we can make choice. And I learn new words from this class. So **I feel very substantial and interesting. I wish that next time do (it) again.**” (Qi, Male student's diary, week 5)

Qi said that he would learn new words from reading, “rental advertisement,” which helped him grow a positive attitude like “substantial and interesting” towards the reading content. This statement suggested that his feeling that the material was substantial and interesting was the cause of his wanting to do it again. Because his positive attitude toward L2 reading materials caused his “desire to read more” by using the phrase, “next time do (it) again.” In light of this desire to learn more, he wanted to take challenges and hoped to do it again next class.

There were many other examples. Four students stated that desire to learn reading skills were of great importance to them. They wanted to improve their progress in reading speed and understanding the main idea of the passage. Three other students described that they wanted to learn more because other members in the groups helped them in their difficulties while reading together. These signified good examples of how positive attitudes in relationships with classmates creating “a desire to learn.” Because of efforts in helping one another, they found reading interesting in group settings. In addition, one individual stated his desire to learn was because he found enjoyment in it. In particular, he liked to read fun and useful articles related to his daily life, such as games, films or someone’s biography.

To sum up, many topics of CTBL reading were very interesting for the study group and drew attention to their desire to learn more. Reasons for the students to have a desire to learn included challenging them in reading, and enjoying reading for realistic and interesting reasons. They were also enjoyed opportunities to practice their reading or language skills, and reading together in a group setting. This suggested that students’ positive attitudes created their “desire to learn.”

6.2.9 Analysis of the Relationship Between Members’ Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation and Goal Salience

6.2.9.1 The Role of Goal Salience :

Goal salience is seen as one of three mediating variables between learners’ positive attitudes and learning behaviour in this model. It involves two key components: one as

the specificity of the learners' goals and the frequency of goal-setting strategies (Dornyei, 2001). Learners' "goals setting" as one crucial factor might influence and perhaps determine whether students could attain positive learning outcomes. It is based upon the assumption as was defined by Locke and Latham (1990): "human action is caused by purpose, and for action to take place, goals have to be set and proposed by choice" (p.81). In addition, another key component, "the frequency of goal-setting strategies," also plays a key role to help learners by using attainable methods to accomplish their goals by using strategy planning. Here we are concerned with the results of whether students could pursue their learning goals and desire further strategies planning for obtaining a successful learning outcome via CTBL teaching strategy.

In addition, we also need to help learners perceive their desired outcomes by enhancing their learning about goal-setting and planning strategies in practice. As Molden and Dweck (2000) indicated, the notion of understanding individuals' goals is to reinforce learners' insights in order to achieve the goals as successful outcomes. The results derived from the evidence in this study could be given an explanation as follows:

One informant, Chang, had a strong desire in establishing his learning outcome by focusing on one of his goal-setting strategies, which would help him feel motivated and thus improve his reading in a CTBL class:

”...單字。因為看文章如果很多單字就根本不用看了！如果單字沒有背，過一段時間後還是會忘記，還是要背一下。” (Chang, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“... Vocabulary. He would give up reading if there are too many vocabulary in the articles. If I did not recite vocabulary, **I would forget them after a while so (I) still need to recite.**”

Chang viewed learning vocabulary as one of his goal-setting strategies. He said that he would focus on his target goal to learn more “vocabulary” in order not to “give up reading.” By doing so, he would find himself needing to “recite vocabulary,” which might help him achieve the desired outcomes, to read English more.

Another respondent, Jing, used a different goal-setting strategy in order to achieve her learning outcomes:

“找到比較多的方法去閱讀，因為不會常常可以直接問旁邊的組員，對阿！比較容易問的，比較經常討論的部份（嗯）就是做一些題目比較快了有改善。” (Jing, Female Respondent in post-course interview)

“(I) **found many ways to overcome the problems in reading.** (I) could directly ask members next to me when (I) could not comprehend the reading content. That's positive. I would consult with other members by asking easy and/or frequent questions in discussions. (Urm...) **It's much faster** to answer some comprehension questions after reading and I found it improved my reading.”

Upon reflecting about the individual's learning outcome in a CTBL class, Jing answered that she would find herself benefiting in this class by using a number of goal-setting strategies. For instance, she could “consult with other members by asking easy and/or frequent questions” while discussing comprehension questions in her group. By doing so, she would view it was positive to learn by interacting with other members and thus her reading improvement was viewed as a successful learning outcome in a CTBL class.

Datong echoed the notion of this goal-setting strategy:

跟別人討論比較快，有效率。藉由閱讀的課程討論，也可以認識朋友。
(Datong, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“It's **much more efficient** to discuss with other members. By reading discussion curriculum, **it could also get acquainted with friends.**”

Dotong also benefited from this CTBL class because he would apply “discussion with other members” as one of his goal-setting strategies in practice. He found himself more efficient to accomplish his learning goal by doing so. Besides, he would get acquainted with other members in his group as an unexpected learning outcome.

As indicated above, achieving successful learning outcomes for individuals needs to enhance their learning motives by helping themselves set up goals and use goal-setting

strategies in practice. In so doing, students would find these factors lead to their learning success. It would imply that the successful learning outcome would depend on setting up goals and practicing crucial strategies.

6.2.9.2 The Goal Setting was Determined by Members' Positive Attitudes toward the Learning Situation:

Because of the group dynamic affecting the individual's positive learning attitudes toward their group environment, a number of students said that their goal setting was aroused by their positive learning attitudes, as the model in no. 8 of figure 6.1 suggests.

The following example shows the task goal stimulated by the members' positive learning attitudes:

This class is fun to use the different transportation go to any place, **and we (our) team discuss what is the transportation are most economical of all. We choice (chose) the cars is reasonable**, so I learn more more things. (Yan, Male Student's diary, Week 7)

Yan's team members' attention was attracted because of a topic regarding their daily lives, transportation, which made participation fun and interesting. His teacher assigned the students given tasks to complete the group goal, which were to answer the question of what was the most economical amongst all methods of transportation (including cars, taxis, city buses) in case study for this group. Because of the individual's insight enhanced by the interesting activity, it led to goal setting in Yan's group. In so doing, the members strongly engaged in their group discussion and chose the best answer as their group objective. The implication here is that Yen and his group understood the notion of how group goal setting can reinforce their insights to reach the successful outcomes through their group discussion.

Another student, Liao, also echoed a similar notion between the goals setting and group attitudes, which is as follows:

“It is funny to use different order to make up a story. Making up a story with comic book is very interesting! We use some new words to **describe the story, looking (sharing)**

other (group) stories and knowing the meaning is the purpose of this activity. (Liao, Male Student's diary, week 3)

In Liao's group, he and his fellow group members found their interests motivated by pursuing the goal assigned by their teacher, in which they needed to complete a short story on their own. Their interest was found in practical reasons to practice their vocabulary by writing the story with the new words they learned. The other objective of the activity is to share other groups' creative stories. In comparing different groups' stories with useful meanings, different strategies are developed throughout the learning process. It would imply that the teacher needs to care about learners' various interests to motivate their work toward the main objective in their class. By doing so, Liao and other members would concern themselves with their learning outcomes by pursuing their learning goals once their learning interests were created.

As for different aspects of goal setting and other classmates' positive learning attitudes, it would be useful to see how each individual viewed his/her learning goals in a CTBL class. The analysis showed that 5-6 students focused on learning new words as their task goals; others would consider learning reading (i.e. reading skills one at a time) or reading short stories as their target goals.

From the interview accounts and students' reflective diaries, we could find there was a total of 12 times addressed that they would find goal setting crucial to the individual's or group's fulfilment. It implied that the majority of this class would think they could achieve their learning goals once goal setting was established.

6.2.10 Analysis of the relationship between Motivational Behaviour and three variables, Self-efficacy, Goal Salience, Desire to Learn

This section focuses on the relationship amongst *Members' Motivational Behaviours* and *Self-efficacy, Goal Salience and Desire to Learn*. In this study, there are several causes influencing students' motivational behaviours, as the model in no. 10-12 of figure 6.1 suggests. Once the individual feels capable in doing tasks, and setting up

his/her learning goals, it would trigger the desire to learn more. In so doing, it is natural for the self to activate effortful behaviours to achieve success in the end.

Motivational behaviour refers to “the characteristics of an individual that can be perceived by an observer...The variables that influence motivational behaviour are often more difficult to perceive by an outside observer but are self-reportable by the actor” (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995:506). It is not possible to observe motivation so one has to observe behaviour which can be considered evidence of motivation. These observable behaviours are classified as motivational behaviour. Examples of motivational behaviour, which can be observed, are effort, persistence, and attention (Gardner & Tremblay, *ibid*), and these are three dimensions to be sought in students' self reports: (1) making efforts, (2) being persistent and (3) paying attention.

6.2.10.1 The Behaviour of ‘Making Efforts’

In the following, the individual noticed his deficiency in reading for a few reasons. One deficiency was because he acquired little vocabulary and could not read effectively:

單字懂得太少，學到如何看廣告，雖然時間有點短，回家時需再加強。(Guong, Male student's diary, week 4)

Vocabulary is limited (to me), yet (I learnt) how to read ads. **Though time is a bit short in class, (I will) study more to reinforce (reading) after home.**

In this case, Guong recognized that he was limited in English vocabulary. However, he tried to learn how to read ads. He also felt that there was not enough time for him to read more in class due to his slow reading speed. He did not want to escape from the hardship of not being able to read efficiently. Instead, he felt he could practice it more at home. To achieve his goal, he would devote extra time and efforts to succeed in reading efficiently. Tremblay & Gardner (1995) argue that if the individual has faith in achieving his goal, he/she would extend his effortful behaviour with persistence to continue learning, and we see such efforts in Guong's case.

6.2.10.2 The behaviour of ‘Being Persistent’

The following quote shows that the learner attempted to improve his reading abilities in class with his effortful behaviour

進步緩慢，但慢慢累積。(Wei, Male student's diary, week 4)

(I made) slow progress (in reading), but **(I could) gradually improve** (in reading ability).

Looking back on the progress he had made, Wei felt he made little progress to learn with his constant efforts during the learning process. He used the phrase, “slow progress” to give us a notion of “trying very hard.” He seemed to work very hard in order to make progress. By stating “I could gradually improve (in reading ability),” Wei believed that he would succeed as long as he kept persisting in order to improve his weakness in reading, even though it was not easy for him to make progress. On the other hand, he didn't feel a sense of failure because he still kept on learning through his persistence and patience.

It is argued that the individual is motivated if he/she expends extended time to continue practicing the tasks, (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Maehr and Braskamp, 1986). So, his persistence in making learning progress was one kind of motivational behaviour.

6.2.10.3 The motivational behaviour of “Paying Attention”:

To assess the following student's motivational behaviour, the student stated in her self-report as follows:

瞭解台灣的國家公園，雖然有點感冒，與隊員互動減少，但可是有注意聽他們在討論什麼。(Jing, Female student's diary, week 5)

I learned about national parks in Taiwan. Although (I) had less interaction with my team members because of my cold, **I paid much attention** to listen to their discussion regarding the reading content.

First, Jing reflected on what she learned from the reading of class tasks. Due to her cold, she compensated her lack of ability to fully participate with motivation to learn by attentively listening to other members' opinions. In class, Jing attentively listened to others' viewpoints though she did not actively join them in providing her opinions.

In particular, most students discovered their lack of reading or study skills while reading in class. Several students pointed out that they needed to improve their weakness in reading. That demanded greater patience and making efforts to motivate them to work harder than those who have higher reading abilities in their groups. Some said that they would pay more attention in class even though reading was seen as a difficult task to them. Such students thus provide evidence that motivational behaviours were central to learning in reading class. Though the notion of motivational behaviours is concerned with the individual's needs, CTBL technique aims to motivate the students as a group to read during the study, and is likely to encourage them to carry out more efforts than traditional teaching methods.

6.2.10.4 Self efficacy, Goal Salience, and Desire to Learn lead to motivational behaviour

There are some examples which show that these motivational behaviours were caused by self efficacy, goal salience and desire to learn as follows:

(1) The behaviour of 'Being Persistent' and 'Making Efforts' was caused by self-efficacy, as the model in no. 10 of figure 6.1 suggests:

“我覺得記單字可以多~~看~~幾次。” (Jie, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“I feel **(I) can remember** vocabulary by **reading many times**.”

Jie said that he 'could remember vocabulary' as long as he would 'read many times.' This statement implied that he is able to better his vocabulary in reading through persistence and spending a good deal of time in studying vocabulary with great effort. He could increase his reading ability if he could recognize more vocabulary. And 'remember vocabulary' implies to help him read more with the sense of confidence. The sense of one's efficacy and confidence creates motivational behaviours.

Another student had a similar notion of gaining confidence to increase her speaking skills with motivational behaviours:

這堂課讓我能夠面對人，並且更有信心說，希望試著說慢一點和清楚些。(Yian, Female Student's diary, Week 9)

This class let me **be able to face people** and have **more confidence to say something...Try to speak slowly and clearly.**

Yian stated that she could “face people” to speak English with “more confidence.” This statement implied that she had abilities to communicate in English with other team mates. And she seemed not to be afraid to talk in front of others. Both statements suggested that she would gain more confidence to have command of her speaking abilities. Once her sense of efficacy and confidence was created, it would motivate her to pay attention to her speaking skills. By stating, “try to speak slowly and clearly” implied that she paid attention and tried to make great efforts to improve her speaking behaviours. So, her sense of confidence and efficacy to learn stimulated her motivational behaviours.

(2) The behaviours of ‘*making efforts*’ and ‘*persistence*’ were derived from Goal Salience, as the model in no. 11 of figure 6.1 suggests:

The following example has shown that goal setting leads to motivational behaviours:

“作業討論。會在課堂以外討論英文，午休或是吃飯的時候。”

(Jie, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“(We would) discuss assignment. **We would discuss English assignments and use the time after class, lunch break, or lunch time.**”

Jie said the assignment discussion as the group goal. In addition, and he stated that he and other members would discuss the English assignment outside of class. This statement would imply Jie's group would spend a great deal of time after class (making effort) in discussing the English assignment not evidence of persistence. He and other members would frequently discuss as a group how to complete their weekly assignment. In a way, he would use the time to learn English persistently in order to fulfil his learning goal.

Another student focused on more practice to help him learn more vocabulary:

This class is very useful. It is help us to understand the rental properties and how to do if something broken. So I think this time is very useful. But there are many words I don't know so **I think I need more practice at vocabulary.** (Ke, Male's student's diary, week 5)

Ke made learning vocabulary as one of his goals. He said that he “needed more practice at vocabulary” once he found many new words to read. It implied that he cared about reading and seemed that he needed to exert more effort to learn new words through practice. So he was continuously making efforts in learning new words in order to better understand the articles.

Qian had a similar view to the previous respondent in a different aspect of motivational behaviours:

“如果常看原文書的話，常出現還是會記得。” (Qian, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“If (I) would **often read English text**, (I) would recognize frequency words as many as possible.”

Qian would consider vocabulary reading as his learning goal as well. This is because he would have to read the whole text to understand as many vocabulary words as possible. In a way, he would expect to “read English text often” (persistence) and reading was considered his effort. In so doing, it would help him recognize words he used to remember. It implied he would keep making effort in reading English text.

(3) The behaviour of ‘Paying Attention’ and ‘Making efforts’ created by desire to learn, as the model in no. 12 of figure 6.1 suggests:

The following student referred to the relation between ‘motivational behaviour’ and ‘desire to learn:’

“我覺得回家可以多看一些英文讀物，如短篇的文章或是廣告…增加一點字集啊。” (Datong, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“(I) feel I want to **read a little more English reading after home**, such as short articles or ads . . . to **gain a little more vocabulary.**”

Datong reflected that he felt he had desire to learn more English reading while interviewing him after the treatment of CTBL approach. He pointed out that his reading desire was motivated, particularly in “short articles” and “advertisements.” In addition, he said that he wanted to “gain a little more vocabulary.” This statement implied that he had noticed that he was limited in vocabulary, and paid attention to his needs while reading. ‘Paying attention’ is considered one of the motivational behaviours. This shows the causal link between ‘desire to learn’ and ‘motivational behaviours.’ In so doing, Datong’s desire to learn creates his motivational behaviours to learn more.

Taking action is another key to reinforce their positive thinking in learning English reading. Gardner (1985) argues that efforts by themselves are not a true motivation to learn the L2. Motivation not only lies in ‘desire to learn’ the language or satisfaction with leaning the language but desire to learn could truly take effect only with efforts (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In this case, Datong wanted to gain more vocabulary as one of motivational behaviours of making an effort was created by his ‘desire to read more.’

Another student had a similar notion of making efforts and persistence that existed once his desire to learn was created:

“因為閱讀字彙瞭解太少。每次指定少量範圍的單字，可以很快去記。這樣多少記一些單字，就如同上學期平時有考單字。然後就比較有記單字，也比較知道如何去記單字。” (Sheng, Male respondent in post-course interview)

“Because reading vocabulary is limited (to me). **If there would be a small range of vocabulary as the assignment each class, (I) would recite them fast.** In this way, I would recite some new words. As like last semester vocabulary tests often, (I) would recite some vocabulary and **know how to use the skills to recite them.**”

Sheng replied that one of his limitations was to recognize vocabulary. He felt that he had a desire to improve by “reciting some words after each class.” In particular, he

preferred “a small range of vocabulary as the assignment” as his desire to learn. It indicates that reciting vocabulary as his learning desire aims to improve his reading by making efforts. In addition, he intended to keep persistence doing that after each class, and so he did last semester. In so doing, he would know better how to recite new words.

In summary, much CTBL reading content and activities were very interesting for the students. Reasons for the students to gravitate to motivational behaviours included feeling able to learn more, having the desire to read more, and goal orientation to promote reading motivation. This suggested that students’ *‘desire to learn,’ ‘self-efficacy’ and ‘goal setting’ created their ‘Motivational behaviours.’*

6.2.11 The Effect of Enhanced Motivational Behaviour on Reading Skills

In this section I will focus on students’ reports of the improvement in reading skills and how this improvement is caused by the motivational behaviour, as shown in no. 13 of figure 6.1 suggests.

6.2.11.1 Students’ Accounts of Improvements in Reading Skills:

First of all, I am going to present data which illustrate how the students experienced reading improvement. The question asked of the following interviewees, was “in which of reading areas (i.e. speed, vocabulary, use of reading skills) have you improved the most?” In the following, the first student said:

“閱讀技巧進步的最多，現在看文章找 **main idea** 比較快。” (Hong, Male respondent in post-course interview)

“**The use of reading skills is improved the most.** . . Now it is **faster to seek the main idea** in the article than before.”

The quotation suggested that reading, especially in reading skills, has made progress. He also pointed out one reading skill which obviously improved, in particular “faster seeking the main idea.” In light of this, he obtained achievement in reading, especially in quickly obtaining the main idea of the article.

Another student also stated improvement in reading skills with less anxiety with reading:

I improved the most is to talk and read. 較不緊張能專心閱讀。”

(Shuhua, Female Student's diary, Week 7)

(I improved the most is to talk and **read. (I had) less anxiety and more focused on reading.**)

Shuhua responded to the same question and also viewed that she considered herself improved the most in reading and talking as well. The reason she found her reading improved was because she felt “less anxiety” and “more focused on reading.” Both statements suggested that she felt she had made much improvement in reading through learning study or reading skills with confidence.

And another student viewed his greatest improvement in reading skills:

I improved the most is use of **reading skills**. 閱讀變多了。(Chan, Male Student's diary, Week 5)

I improved the most is use of **reading skills. (I felt) class reading becomes more.**

Chan also expressed that he had improved his reading skills the most. Because he was assigned more reading by the class teacher, he became able to read more, which helped him practice often. It indicates that he would improve reading skills by practicing often.

Two questions were asked in relation to the specific answer of improved reading skills. These two questions stated, “*Did CTBL study help you improve your reading skills?*” To answer the first question, almost everyone had a positive answer (See Table 6.2). The second question: “*On a scale from one to ten, what number would you give yourself in respect to improving your reading skills?*” The table below presents the answers from eight respondents as given in Table 6.2.

The results of the improvement from the data out of eight respondents' reading skills present positive influence to their reading achievement. In particular, seven respondents

said they thought they had improved their reading skills, which demonstrates CTBL approach as a positive impact to them. In the scale shown above, on average, students ranked their improvement above a 5 (See Table 6.2). In contrast, only one interviewee would say his reading skills were less improved than his speaking skills because other members helped him much more while reading in a group (I will explain it later in the next subsection).

Table 6.2 *Interview Questions List 2*

<i>Interviewees</i>	<i>Answer of *Q1:</i>	<i>Answer of *Q2:</i>
Student O, Group N	Yes	6-7
Student W, Group M	Yes	7
Student H, Group M	Yes	6
Student J, Group C	Yes	6
Student E, Group C	Yes	7
Student A, Group N	Yes	6
Student C, Group F	-	-
Student N, Group O	Yes	5

* Q1: *Did CTBL technique help you improve your reading skills?*

* Q2: *On a scale from one to ten, what number would you give yourself in respect of improving your reading skills?*

6.2.11.2 Other language skills also improved

The above mentioned interviewee stated that he found his language abilities improved, especially ‘speaking’ skills. The student disclosed that his speaking skills improved the most amongst all language skills.

“說進步最多，敢說。” (Yue, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“Speaking has improved the most to me...brave to speak.”

Yue said that speaking skills improved the most to him. This statement suggested that he made progress in speaking while reading and discussing in his group. The reason for his speaking skills improving was because he became brave enough to practice in group.

Among other evidence shown in students' diaries, several students felt other language skills improved as well, such as listening and speaking. The following example shows that the student, Guo, during the study of CTBL became more confident in attentively listening to other member's dialogue or discussion.

I like the class because **I think I learning a lot.**聽的有進步，說還是不行。(Guo, Male student's diary, week 4)

(I like the class because **I think (that) I learnt a lot. (I made) some progress in listening,** whereas (I am) still no good in speaking.)

Guo he said that he had been improving his language ability, in particular his listening skills. He would feel it relatively easy to make some progress in his listening skills compared to his speaking skills. He showed that he liked the class because of his 'desire to learn' by stating, "I learned a lot." And this suggests that his desire to learn leads to improve his listening skills.

Another student would find himself improving overall reading skills:

“都有進步。閱讀速度給自己 6-7 分吧！綜合閱讀技巧 差不多也是 6-7 分吧！覺得自己都有進步。” (Chen, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“All is improved. Reading speed is improved about 6-7! Reading comprehension is about 6-7! I felt that I made all progress.”

To answer the same question, Chen said that he had made progress in reading skills, in particular about 6-7 on a scale of ten for reading speed improved. In addition, reading comprehension skills also made progress, the same as reading speed. Both statements suggest that Chen had improved overall reading skills.

Students mentioned a total of sixteen times that their reading skills improved in their diaries and interviews. The students' references so many times is of great importance. The fact that an individual kept saying "improved readings skills" more than once indicates he or she had strong feelings about this. It suggested that reading skill improvement of students indeed takes effect by the treatment of CTBL approach.

Up to this point, I have shown many students thought they had made progress in reading skills. While reading in class, some individuals reflected that not only average reading skills improved, but also other language skills were improved, such as speaking or listening skills. Therefore, the following section is going to present the relationship between *Motivational behaviours and Reading skills*.

6.2.11.3 Motivational Behaviour Leads to Improved Reading Skills

In this section, the evidence shows the students think there is a causal relationship between motivational behaviours and improved reading skills. The following respondent said that his reading skills improved because of his persistence and efforts:

“閱讀技巧進步最多，因為常練習。” (Chen, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“Using of reading skills is improved the most. It's because (we are) often practiced (reading skills).”

Chen said that his reading skills had improved the most. The quotation implied that he had accomplished his reading achievement by improving his reading skills. His reading skills improved because he practiced them often in class. This suggested that being persistent (often) and making efforts (practicing) leads to improved reading skills. In addition, another student would echo the above student's view:

“閱讀技巧進步最多，因為常常需要閱讀。” (Chen, Male Respondent in post-course interview)

“Using of reading skills is improved the most. Because it is often required reading practices.”

Chen said that reading skills had improved the most to him. He emphasized that the class was required to practice reading often. It implied that his reading skills improved the most because the class practicing often (persistence and efforts) had made his reading skills progress the most.

Another interviewee reflected that her reading skills improved, particularly in reading speed while practicing reading strategies in class:

“我們做題目時，是直接去看直接去猜，做完之後在去用翻譯機，其實先查字典不會比較方便，就是先猜之後再去查字典，意思不對就知道了，就是做一些題目比較快了，比以前改善。” (Female Respondent in post-course interview, Jing)

“While we were reading, (we) directly were guessing what the words mean before checking in the electronic dictionary. As a matter of fact, I don't think that looking up dictionary is convenient. That is to say, (we) **guess words from the context before checking in the dictionary**. We can easily identify words meaning after looking up in dictionary. In so doing, (we) would **read faster and much improved than before.**”

Jing said that she and other team mates used one of the reading skills, ‘directly guessing words from the context,’ to read while they were reading words they didn't know. When she and other members found new words in reading, the reading skill could help her and other members effectively read faster prior to looking up every word in the dictionary. This statement suggested that they would practice reading skills often while they were reading. By doing this they made efforts and kept persistency in reading, they would improve their reading speed by practicing their reading skills often. By implication, the motivational behaviours lead to students' improving their reading skills, and that shows the causal link between the behaviours and improved reading skills.

6.2.11.4 Motivational Behaviour Leads to Improved Other Skills

The following student, Shuhua, considered not only her reading skills improved, but also her talking skills:

“I improved the most is to **talk and read**. 較不緊張能專心閱讀。” (Shuhua, Female Student's diary, Week 7)

(“I improved the most is **to talk and read. (I felt) less anxiety and could more concentrate on reading.**”)

This suggests that talking skill would be seen as the other language skill improved as well, other than reading skill. She said she could “concentrating on reading,” because she could feel less anxiety while reading in group, and therefore she could pay more attention and focus on reading (efforts) in class now. This example has shown that Shuhua would improve not only her reading but also another skill, such as talking, once her motivational behaviours were created.

6.2.12 Summary

To summarise, this whole chapter has demonstrated the findings of my study with regard to the research question. The model of motivation to read for L2 learners I proposed (see figure 6.1) has highlighted several important variables adapted from Tremblay and Gardner’s model (1995), and added two other variables, *Group cohesion* and *Group efficacy*, derived from this particular group of the study. The evidence displayed in this entire section, as shown in 6.2, which strongly supports the key variables of this study. Therefore, I shall conclude that the proposed model with L2 reading motivation is helpful for future students to encourage them to achieve improvement in their reading skills.

In the following chapter 7 and 8, I will present implications, suggestions and conclusions.

CHAPTER 7

Implications and Suggestions

7.0 A Journey on Implementing a CTBL Approach in this Thesis

My original intention in this study was to investigate the development of students' motivation and to see whether students improve their reading skills.

Prior to the beginning of this thesis, I had thought to investigate these problems and hopefully to solve hidden issues from my past university teaching experiences. In order to change students' attitudes towards their learning situation, I simply wanted to understand how an individual with "low achievement status" would be likely to develop motivation in my class. The current upgraded national competition to meet the challenges of globalization has had a huge influence on the society in Taiwan, in particular in stressing the importance of university students' good English proficiency. In the first two chapters I have indicated the problems that caused individuals' low achievement levels in English based on their earlier EFL reading history and earlier instruction by teachers, all of which influences students' success or failure in their national entrance exam scores. Prior to attending university EFL reading courses, the individual's motivation is also likely to be influenced by achievement grouping (AG) and his/her current learning situation within the milieu of Taiwan's higher education.

I have investigated the theories of CL and TBLT separately and I have analyzed how these two teaching methods can be integrated into an effective pedagogy: Cooperative Task-Based Learning (CTBL). I have explored related significant motivational theories concerning the research question of this study. Seeking the most suitable second/foreign language learning motivational theory helped me to develop an enhanced model, within this study, adapted from Gardner and Tremblay's original work (See Chapter 3). I also explained how a CTBL approach might be expected to motivate students to read English more.

I carried out my action research in three dimensions: dimension one was to implement my lesson plans and reflect on how I could turn the notion of CTBL into real-world professional practice. In designing the research, I adopted data triangulation to gather multiple perspectives of the relevant aspects of this research in order to answer the research question (Chapter 4). The second dimension was to use various techniques for data collection, including student and teacher logs, audio and video documentation, and interviews. The third and last dimension was to manage data collection.

Data analysis enabled me as a teacher and researcher to reflect on my action research. The methods for data analysis of this study and the way in which I used existing theory in my main findings are explained in chapters 5 and 6.

In Chapter 5, I analyzed data to see what the teacher noticed about motivation in her actual operationalization as well as data from the research assistant (RA). The intention of using the RA's log is to offer important data sources, which helped me provide triangulated evidence to complement those in the teacher's log. The data showed that the teacher and RA noticed positive outcomes in the use of a CTBL instructional strategy.

In order to seek the relationship between students' motivation and their learning success to answer my research question, as indicated above I adapted Gardner and Tremblay's (1995) motivational model. In so doing I discovered two other variables mediating the direct linkage as derived from all the data collected in this study. These factors are group cohesion and group efficacy, which formed a newer model with causal links amongst all possible motivational variables emergent from the data. In chapter 6 I present the data from the students and showed that the teaching approach not only improved, in the perceptions and reports of students, the individual's motivation for English reading, but also helped improve his/her reading skills.

I have completed my analysis and have explored the theory and practice for teachers and researchers which might be applied in future reading courses. The methods of teaching reading are discussed below. This chapter highlights many essential areas in

this research, including pedagogical and practical implications, limitations of this thesis, and suggestions for further research.

7.1 Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study involves mainly the use of a qualitative method of analysis, shown in the preceding chapters 5 and 6, which shows the learners' sense of success in obtaining English reading skills through improving their learning motivation. Several key implications derived from these findings may help teaching professionals or future researchers studying CTBL research reinforce some essential points as follows:

1. Providing more suitable authentic materials in a given group task, which might enhance more low-achieving AG students' learning motivation in Taiwan's HE.
2. Strong participation and involvement occurs through group cohesion and joint efforts to enhance learners' motivation in studying English.
3. Mastering effective pedagogies to fill gaps in students' needs.
4. Reinforcing language teachers' awareness with reference to L2 motivational psychology in practice.

I will now explain my reasoning behind points 1-4, as shown in the following 7.2-7.5:

7.2 Implications for expanding more authentic related teaching materials incorporating group process

My findings from this study suggested that there was a strong linkage between learners' motivation and their perceptions of learning success in a CTBL class setting. The integration of cooperative learning (CL) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) in this study enables most low achieving learners of English to develop their interests in reading materials involving their learning environment. More importantly, the students' learning motivation increases during the process of reinforcing their interests by introducing a CTBL strategy. This research suggests that low achievement and poor performance can be improved by the intervention of introducing a CTBL approach.

Regarding the use of a CTBL strategy, the teacher in her lesson plan integrated both process and content by introducing authentic learning materials plus given tasks to students. These materials include role-play in the restaurant, writing their own comic book story and business letters, the use of transportation and vehicles to given destinations, all of which highlighted the features of TBLT (i.e. a real-world activity related to the class task).

Through the use of materials and TBLT tasks, many participants became aware of improved problem solving skills through the process of learning. In addition, most low achieving learners of English would find themselves exploring and using the skills of problem solving while they were working through a number of teacher-assigned problem-solving activities inspired by the TBLT pedagogy. Another researcher (i.e. Macro, 2003) also approves of this important characteristic in TBLT.

These TBLT materials also induced students to share their personal information with other classmates in their target language as well as the communicative language interaction based on issues in a real-world situation. By so doing, these individuals would practice English as a communicative function in their everyday classroom life. My findings indicate that students possessing limited language proficiency, according to their relatively low entrance examination scores, became more likely to be able to use English to reinforce all four language skills with other group members within a class-based setting. In light of this factor, providing proper levels of authentic materials close to 'real-life' situations might assist learners to increase their comprehension language skills, and also to reinforce their communicative abilities when they demonstrate their commitment to accomplishing learning tasks. Students are thus provided with a purpose for the use of interactive communication.

I believe that this study found an effective instructional method through the use of a CTBL strategy, but we might look at suitable tasks and activities from useful materials for syllabi design for the particular group of low achievers. Most of the tasks and activities in this study so far have been implemented and based on co-operation and thus they serve increasingly to fill the gaps in learners' needs. My research suggests the

strong effectiveness of implementing a CTBL approach, in which students' learning motivation was increased by the use of authentic materials related to their daily interests in their learning environment.

My purpose is for the study materials to assure learners' academic competence at different levels, particularly for the low-achieving population. Although there are a variety of materials with regard to the syllabus of TBLT on the market (i.e. Willis and Willis, 2007, Nunan, 2004, Ellis, 2004, 1993, and Willis, 1996), we need to integrate proper cooperative learning methods with task-based syllabi design in Taiwan's HE, particular for those learners with low-achieving status.

7.3 Implication for Two Additional Components within the CTBL Motivational Framework

The positive results of enhancing the students' motivation in foreign language learning reminded me of Gardner and Tremblay's social psychological revised model in 1995. However, my research solely concerned the impact of class-based instruction on motivation to read, not the presumptions in the entire language milieu in Canada. There are two additional key variables found in the present study, which are group cohesion and group efficacy. These factors are the most influential components of all in implementation of a modified motivational framework. By using a CTBL strategy, teachers can foster this type of building social skills and strengthening group cohesion through interdependent relationships in which the majority of students find themselves engaged in their group work within a safe learning environment.

Another thing I observed was that participants would actively engage in the given tasks upon creation of good group work leading to team discussions aimed at promoting joint efforts in order to accomplish their given tasks. Strong participation, which developed through members' joint efforts might account for occurrence of pupils' strong learning motivation occurring while undergoing good group work. Students appeared motivated and desirous of learning within the parameters of group work. By so doing, team joint efforts are thus likely to enhance individuals' learning interests and feelings towards their learning environment in the C-level class.

7.4 Mastering Effective Pedagogies Necessary for Teachers to Meet Students' Needs

The theory of CL is based on the notion of producing students' collaboration and this study has proved that students in cooperative learning environments perform better than in traditional instruction classes.

On the other hand, TBLT activates learners to feel interested in fun tasks while kindling their desire to exert efforts to achieve their task goals and the results of this project also showed positive feedback from the teacher.

However, not every student was successful throughout all the lessons. The teacher strived to provide her knowledge and instructional skills to motivate her pupils to read better while doing group work. It was expected that all students would respond to this pedagogy through the learning process while the teacher would perceive reasonable progress through the consequences of students' class response.

However, here I emphasize that some students in the study still encountered motivational problems so that they would achieve relatively less compared to other classmates (See chapter 6). For example, a few students with low language proficiency reflected that they wanted their teacher to speak slower in English while they were following the instructions to do their group work in some relatively difficult tasks. It is likely that the teacher could achieve better outcomes if she made her class pace slower in some lessons while instructing the C-level class. Thus, it would be better once the teacher became sensitive and also concerned with pupils' reflection in-and out of class.

7.5 Implication for Language Teacher's Awareness of Learners' Psychology

In chapter 6 of this study I have shown that the majority of team members achieved their learning goals through group work. Indeed, In order to accomplish the group goal, one participant indicated that "In this way (goal setting), it's much more efficient to discuss the situation with other members." For example, most participants in many lessons would participate in the given tasks that would help them to engage in goal setting and to achieve the goals given by the language teacher. This instructional

method leads to a high level of motivation because of pupils' desire to learn and to gain self-confidence in their present language proficiency (i.e. self-efficacy). It thus follows they believed that with more effort they would be able to succeed.

The fact that many participants were highly motivated by this incentive of "goal setting," and "goal frequency," echoes Dweck's work in 1986 where this researcher argues that learners are likely to be motivated once they possess a goal that is geared towards their learning situation. This methodology leads learners to treat every situation as an opportunity for either success or failure. However, my findings indicate that the teacher needs to be aware that some individuals with performance goals might tend to avoid tasks once they found that they had insufficient confidence in their present abilities.

In addition, evidence indicates that there are certain factors revealed by participants in which their failures or success in their learning past and hidden incentives influenced their current situational learning. In light of this point, Weiner's causal attribution theory serves as a key to understanding this type of student motivation from the causal-link evidence in Chapter 6.

Attribution of failure causes participants to have low expectations of success in response to an initial experience of failure. For example, many low-achieving students initially considered that their past learning experience could not help them learn well. However, their performance through positive group work found that they improved compared to their past failure experiences in language learning. In light of this fact, the instructor must be sensitive when teaching students with low achievement levels. In order to improve their chances of success it is necessary that teachers increase their knowledge of operational psychology of foreign language learners in class in order to help more students bridge the gap to success.

7.6 Limitations of This Study and the Need for Further Research

In the previous paragraphs I have shown several significant implications. At this point I will address the limitation of this study. As far as I know, this research is the first of its kind in Taiwan, which focuses on investigating the effectiveness of a CTBL strategy for

those first-year students with low achievement status in a Taiwanese university. Due to the fact that these efforts constitute the first research in response to the needs of students of this level, there are some limitations of this study of which we must be aware before reaching any generalizations. First, the sample size will likely be viewed as a small group of 19 participants selected from a total of 38 students from the C level class. For more improvement, future studies must further explore the application of a larger size of class settings. Perhaps the research time can be extended to a little under a year of investigation, compared to the duration of 12 weeks in this study.

Moreover the qualitative research techniques in this case are limited in scope to measuring the progress of students' reports of their motivations. I based the data collected for analysis in this study on six interview accounts (i.e. eight interviewees), a teacher's diary, an RA's log, a participants' log and a collection of group sheets. Future research can be conducted through a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, which might deepen different aspects of informants' perspectives and also enrich the data concerning time constraints and group effectiveness. With time and other resources permitting, future research might explore and develop a better measurement that would be more valid and reliable to adapt to a large class-based setting.

More importantly, I observed that CTBL strategy was not actually adopted by all learners over twelve sessions. I noticed some isolated learners who looked disengaged, especially at the initial stage. Their behaviour showed resistance and they didn't want to join in their group work. Perhaps because of interest level of the lessons, some of these students gradually showed some interest and they finally turned out to enjoy group learning. For instance, one female student who tended to be disengaged felt sick on the day for session 4. At the beginning, she distanced herself in the group; however, she found it interesting to listen to other members' earnest discussion by learning cooperatively. By the end of session, she learned through other members' joint efforts though she did not contribute much to her group on that day.

Moreover, a class consisting of 12-session units for teaching CTBL pedagogy is difficult if only a teacher and a researcher are available. The fact is that the researcher

plays many roles in this project and sometimes might not be generally objective towards the entire research process. Further study needs to be conducted by team teaching or training the teacher trainees in order to provide them more opportunities for learning CL pedagogies and TBLT. As explained in earlier chapters (See chapter 3), there are a wide variety of methods explored in CL and teachers should further compare many of these procedures to rule out unnecessary approaches and to combine useful methods for adaptation into further researches and it is expected that both teachers and students should be involved in such further investigations.

Furthermore, both text and resource development should be expanded. In particular the 12-week lesson plans of this study, with their limited scope only create some interesting topics, which I thought were of great need for these C-level group participants. After completion of my current work I hope to include other recommended topics provided from students' interview accounts or interactive content explored by myself.

7.7 Suggestions for further research

It seems likely that the findings I have reached in this present study have some limitations as indicated above. I will thus now make some suggestions for practitioners to operationalize CTBL in future classes and/or future researches:

1. Reinforce low achieving students' interests and inspire their creativity by adding the topics of reading for meaning and fun and/or selecting authentic materials in a real-world situation.
2. Consolidate proper teaching pace and intensity of each unit for teaching. Students' idea of good teaching has to involve these key elements in class, good pacing and proper intensity. The outcome would prove less successful when the teaching pace is relatively fast, particularly with difficult texts, because these students need time to generate their reading comprehension.

On the other hand, students might lose interest or patience when work is viewed as relatively too easy or too slow within a teaching environment under which

circumstances it is likely for the teacher to find his/her students lacking motivation and interest in doing their tasks. For instance, the teacher at the post-task stage should provide some time for students to examine and share key characteristics of the text in class. Meanwhile, the teacher should remind students of some important words, useful phrases, and sentence patterns occurring during or after the comprehension input. However, some learners might not get involved in team discussions because of their views of the tasks being unchallenging or far too easy for them. We must inspire the individual to be brave enough to choose key words or phrases, and then to practice them. However, there is a need for proper guidance in consultation, and the teacher must control students' discussions adequately, in order to reduce problems due to insufficient teaching pacing and intensity.

3. Control time. Several factors intervened in the class that prevented students from having enough time fully to complete their group tasks. The teacher should be strict with time control because of the time constraints involved in cooperative learning groups. In so doing, he/she can solve the problems concerning incomplete group presentations and class written tasks/diaries and/or unfinished closing remarks provided by the teacher.

4. Rewards play an important incentive factor in the process of cooperative learning. Students might be encouraged to achieve a successful outcome in order to attain proper recognition. Indeed, learning for fun and interest is seen as an indispensable factor for reading success to students. From the results of this study, we can see that the teacher should provide more praise with regard to group performance or highlight more successful group achievement within five cooperative learning groups to enable the students to attain more than what they obtained in this present study.

5. Other factors might jeopardize students' motivation levels and these circumstances include lack of technical supports (i.e. visual aids), proper materials or texts (i.e. the teacher's lesson plan), and insufficient funding, or a shortage of school equipment (i.e. video cameras) all of which might stop the processing of this empirical study. For example, the outcome of class reading activity will be seen as more successful regarding students' reading outcomes if there were an audio recorder in the classroom. Pupils' lacking of listening practices can affect their reading to some extent. It is thus unlikely

for learners to attain reading success without providing them sufficient equipment to enable them to acquire other language skills (i.e. listening or speaking abilities). It would have been more satisfying for the teachers and students to achieve additional success to promote students' motivational levels if the school had provided useful resources or aids during this research process. These factors can act as a key function to laying a better foundation for successful future research.

6. The teacher will face challenges when students lose their interest in teaching approaches. As I pointed out in Chapter 5 regarding the teacher's perspective, this point is one neglected area of great importance for instructors.

As a result, there are two reasons why students with low achievement levels in the learning process lose interest in class. One is that it is hard to understand the teaching methods while the other involves their earlier experiences with failure. One plausible explanation for a few individuals showing lack of interest in class might be that the teacher lacks enough knowledge of the students' difficulties concerning the levels of reading content, or vocabulary and/or other related reading problems. In this case, the problem might lead to an unbridgeable gap between the teacher and her students. This causes some students in the C level group not to give much praise for this teacher. To solve this issue, it sometimes seems insufficient to change students' opinions if the teacher only focuses on how to increase the level of students' interests in reading content or topics.

Last but not least, further study can investigate not only this small aspect of CTBL, but also a wider strategic dimension combined with other teaching methods to improve the limitation of this study. After all, the class-based approach must adapt to the real-world competitive learning situation. There is a great need for our students to attain genuine learning and understanding in class, and thus to achieve individual success they need to learn through a collaborative team work in class practice before entering a competitive real world. To support cooperative learning in school, learners need to take time and make great efforts to enable themselves to achieve success. In so doing, we can cultivate this generation of youth with a highly mature level of thought to pursue the attainment of actual knowledge about the learning environment. Instead of choosing the academic

goal of competing with others as an experienced test taker, the individual who wants to succeed in the real-world competitive learning world requires a series of peer cooperation or team collaboration in practice.

From above, in the contemporary era of promoting a national economy amongst world nations, the role of teachers in Taiwan's HE acts as responsible for helping all students to explore their learning attitudes with proper guidance, and to help the individuals to assess their language proficiency in reality while acquiring English.

CHAPTER 8

Conclusion

My final conclusion of this thesis drawn from my research questions and findings is: I can help low-achieving students as follows:

As a teacher, I devoted myself to teaching EFL in Taiwan's HE for several years in order to enhance learners' motivation and confidence to learn. This process included many considerations regarding research methods, techniques, and methods concerning data analyses compared with literature and current policy in Taiwan's HE within the present trend of globalization. My fundamental purpose in this action research project was to seek an effective approach to the teaching of reading, one that will help students to enhance their confidence and motivation in this area. I found the approach most likely to succeed in a teacher's twelve-week implementation of a novel concept involving use of a CTBL strategy.

My thesis supports the effectiveness of this research, which focused on improving university learners' successful reinforcement of motivation regarding achievement of English reading skills. The designed pedagogical strategy, CTBL, indeed responded to the needs of participants in this study group with low achievement levels.

Abundant evidence from the data demonstrates learners' positive changes regarding their motivation to learn. I observed many students who increased their motivational levels thus showing positive potential for them to improve their reading skills by the implementation of a CTBL approach. There appeared to be a likely cause-and-effect relationship between improved motivation and their improvement in reading skills. However, at the same time, I observed no change in the participants' achievement levels and thus there was no objective evidence to measure their achievements.

These findings have been related to the revised L2 motivation model from Gardner and Tremblay's 1995 work the original of which was tested mainly within the social milieu

of Canada. However, my research only dealt with EFL learners in the classroom opposed to the Quebec experience. Abundant evidence in my findings has shown that we must consider the important mediatory variables between students' motivations and their learning achievements and these changeable elements include encouraging learners' participation in teamwork through members' joint efforts, promoting students' positive learning attitudes by use of authentic texts and materials, reinforcing self-efficacy to promote goal-setting activities and desire to learn, boosting individual's motivational behaviour and drawing their attention to reading more.

Positive results can be seen within this particular group in my research project, in which I found some observable change in students' motivational levels in an EFL C-level class. We can observe the two variables, group cohesion and group efficacy, improving their motivation through the participants' team cohesion and the strong joint efforts involved in a CTBL class and both factors are closely related in the causal-effect model on the evidence from the perspective of students and their teachers.

More importantly, this work in which I researched low achievers within given groups in a Taiwan university will serve as a starting point for me in future investigations, and my results imply that there is a need for English instructors to be aware of mastering effective pedagogies in order to fill gaps in students' needs.

My original intention was to see students' motivation improved with the change of the teacher's pedagogy but changes in achievement levels were not likely to be measured in such a short period of time. I found reading skills improved in the eyes of the teacher and her students but, there is no empirical evidence from any objective test to prove this point. I thus need more time to prove EFL learners' achievements in an additional research project. In other words we need further systematic investigations to prove exactly how students' achievements might be caused by their increasing motivation to read more.

This thesis appeared a novel study in response to my concern for the needs of learners within Taiwan's HE context. It seems to me that there must be a guiding light somewhere, which leads me to continue my devotion to teaching low-achieving

individuals in school. However, there remain certain limitations within this area of study that need to be improved. As a researcher, finishing this project sometimes reminds me that we still have a long way to go in exploring this application for students with low- achievement status. I am thus prepared with a number of good reasons for introducing a CTBL strategy in teachers' implementation of class learning.

One strong argument I make is that no student should be treated unfairly in AG. Instead, I shall encourage other teaching practitioners or school administrators to make joint efforts in collaborative teamwork to create educational environments more interesting and fun for enhancing students' motivation in EFL reading within school. I thus would like to generalize certain phenomena according to the positive results obtained in this study, and I am also laying a foundation to conduct further research to seek a possible solution to this situation.

It is hoped that this thesis provided some useful implications, which will enable more teachers to motivate low-achieving students under proper guidance within an environment involving rapport, which introduces the concept and practise of doing more group work and constructing good relationships among one another in order to reach team-learning objectives. Future longitudinal studies related to this thesis will be undertaken which explore further applications of a CTBL approach as a treatment for improving low-achieving university students' learning motivation. We can thus consider this study as a practical starting point for future experiments since my work involved this research project solely within an AG class in a Taiwanese university. I most sincerely hope that more students in our AG, who are labelled as "low achieving" EFL adult learners, can enhance their motivation to read more.

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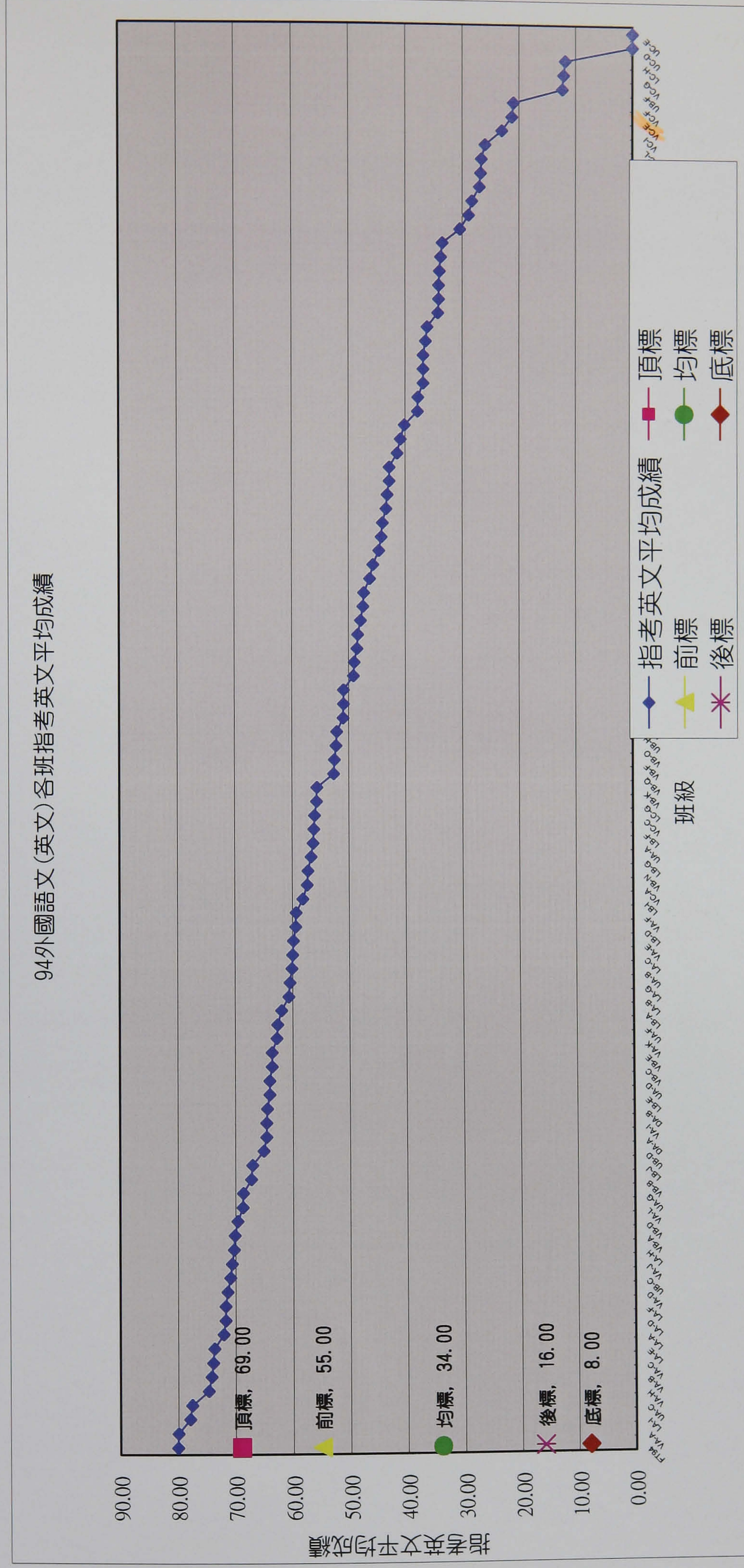
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Appendix 1 The diagram of all students' English scores of this university according to their entrance examination in 2005



Appendix 2 The participants' English scores of this university examination in 2005

94外國語文(英文)各班指考英文平均成績

(附件一)

班級	指考英文平均成績
FT94	80.04
VA-A	79.99
LA-I	77.95
UA-C	77.61
VA-H	74.76
VA-B	74.22
VA-C	73.95
LA-E	73.71
LA-A	72.10
LA-D	71.76
LA-F	71.73
VA-D	71.43
UB-C	70.90
VA-J	70.62
LA-H	70.28
VB-A	70.15
VB-D	69.62
VA-L	68.77
UA-G	68.68
VB-B	67.30
LB-J	67.07
UB-D	65.09
DA-A	64.59
VA-I	64.59
DA-B	64.45
LB-E	64.09
UA-D	64.02
VB-C	63.67
VB-E	63.63
VA-K	62.75
UA-F	62.69

頂標 69

前標 55

班級	指考英文平均成績
LB-A	61.92
LA-B	60.68
LA-G	60.47
UA-B	60.12
LA-C	60.01
VA-E	59.79
LB-D	59.40
VA-F	59.33
LB-I	58.12
VC-A	57.40
VB-N	57.24
LB-G	56.70
UA-A	56.35
LB-F	56.20
VC-C	56.04
LC-G	55.68
VB-K	55.63
VB-Q	52.65
VB-F	52.53
VB-O	52.27
UB-H	52.12
UC-C	50.99
LB-L	50.90
VB-L	50.90
UB-G	49.17
LB-H	49.02
VC-B	48.52
VB-P	48.39
DB-A	47.88
DB-B	47.51
UB-B	47.36

班級	指考英文平均成績
VA-G	46.27
VB-G	45.74
LC-C	44.71
VB-M	44.23
UB-A	44.03
LC-F	43.38
VB-R	43.21
VC-J	42.89
LC-B	42.81
VB-H	41.41
LC-D	40.89
UB-E	40.16
DB-C	37.83
UC-G	37.78
LB-K	36.85
LB-C	36.84
VB-I	36.83
UC-B	36.43
VC-H	36.15
LC-E	34.27
LB-B	34.14
LC-A	34.13
UA-E	33.98
VC-D	33.75
UC-F	33.46
VC-K	30.40
VB-J	28.87
UC-A	28.33
UC-H	26.98
DC-A	26.77
DC-B	26.59

均標 34

班級	指考英文平均成績
VC-L	25.96
VC-I	23.02
VC-E	21.25
VC-F	21.00
UB-F	12.35
VC-G	12.10
LC-H	11.88
UC-D	未參加指考
UC-E	未參加指考

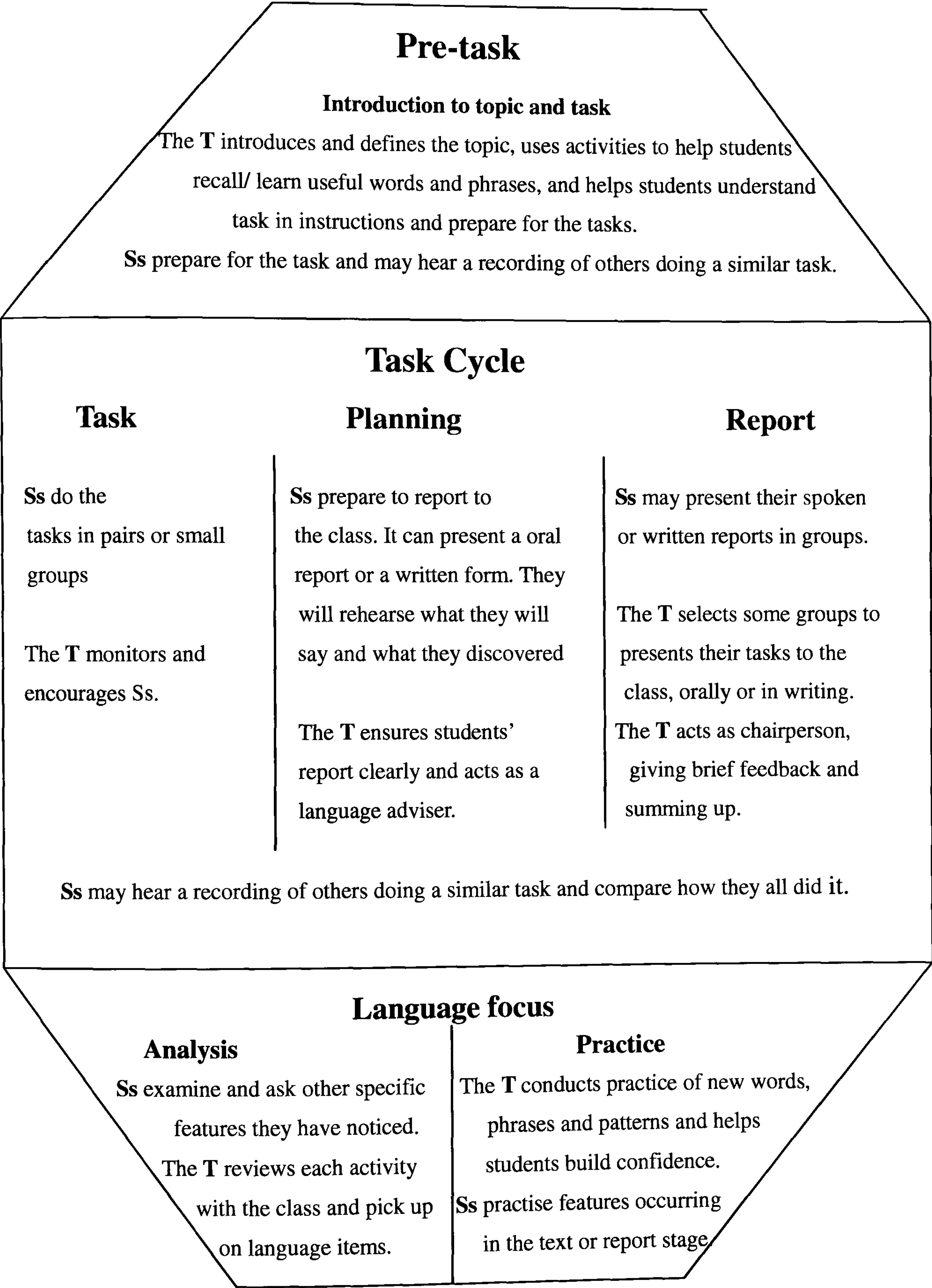
後標 16

底標 8

A 65
B1 50
B2 40
C 40

Appendix 3 The TBLT framework invented by Willis in 1996

T: Teacher Ss: Students



Appendix 4 Sample 1

Students' answers to the open-ended questions after the pre-session Cooperative Learning Class

Date: December, 2005

Nationality: Taiwan

Sex: Male

Major: Chemical Engineering

Year of university: the first-year

1. What do you think of learning English in cooperative learning? Do you like it? Why? Or why not?
2. What are your favorite activities in a cooperative learning class?
3. Do you think cooperative learning help in your learning of English as a foreign language?
4. How does cooperative learning help in your motivation toward learning English?
5. How do you like your future English class to be? What are your suggestions for future English class?

[6] 我喜歡分小組模式的上課

[1]

I'm loved it!! 小組練習可以培養大家的合作力, 進而促使大家討論.

[2]

最喜歡是英文詩' 的部分, 中翻英的詩真的很特別!

[3]

有! 溝通能力會進步!

[4]

我如果比別人強, 可以帶領別人; 如果別人比我強, 我會緊張, 進而更努力! 所以皆有幫助!

[5]

English song! 聽力進步! 語感也會變強!!

Appendix 5 Informed Consent

TITLE OF PROJECT:	
A study of the effects of an approach to reading study through a cooperative task-based learning strategy with low achieving University ESL learners with difficulties in reading	
	<i>Please cross out as necessary</i>
Have you read the Participant Information Sheet?	YES / NO
Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and to discuss the study?	YES / NO
Have you received satisfactory answers to all of your questions?	YES / NO
Have you received enough information about the study?	YES / NO
Who have you spoken to? Ms. Tsu-Chia Julia Hsu	
Do you consent to participate in the study?	YES/NO
Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study:	
* at any time and	
* without having to give a reason for withdrawing and	
* without affecting your position in the University?	YES / NO
Signed	Date
(NAME IN BLOCK LETTERS)	
Signature of witness	Date
(NAME IN BLOCK LETTERS)	

- 1) The ‘signature of a witness’ section of the consent form is optional; if, however, you include this in your consent form, then the signature of each volunteer must be witnessed by someone other than the researcher.
- 2) The information sheet should contain the statement ‘Approved by Durham University’s Ethics Advisory Committee’ when approval has been given.

Unit 1 Taiwan's Climate

General



Specific aim: To train students to infer the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Skills involved: Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items through contextual clues.

Why? This kind of exercise (cloze exercise) will help students realize how much context can assist them to learn the meaning of difficult or unfamiliar words.

Pre-reading Activities

1. Are weather forecasts usually correct in Taiwan? Why or Why not?
2. Describe the following weather symbols. a. rainy b. stormy c. cloudy d. sunny e. foggy f. windy g. snowy

Read the following paragraph and try to guess the meaning of the word “typhoon.”

Weather in Taiwan is changeable, and information is gathered from government weather stations, ships and satellites so that this data is then used to predict the weather. Sometimes forecasts are wrong because the weather changes so quickly.

Typhoons are typical summer occurrences in Taiwan. They are violent storms emanating in the Pacific Ocean and can cause widespread damage and even disasters. The winds in a typhoon travel at more than 150 kilometres per hour carrying severe rains resulting in floods and landslides that destroy many businesses, homes, and lives. Usually the typhoon season in Taiwan starts in May running through October and rising in mid-July to mid-August.

In addition, Taiwan's has abundant rainfall of approximately 4,000 mm annually and with its tropical and subtropical climate. The latter is home to an abundance of diverse plant life. North and south Taiwan differ in their rainy seasons with North Taiwan's northeast monsoons bringing heavy rainfall during the winter from October

to March, while the South's southwest monsoon brings typhoons from June to October and heavy rainfall. Humidity and heat make up the summer climate with the temperature averaging 82 degrees F (28 degrees C). Winters are generally mild, lasting from December to February with averaging temperatures of 64 degrees F (18 degrees C).

There is a wide variety of weather for people living in Taiwan where the weather is also unpredictable. As you can see, the climate in Taiwan is not always good, but perhaps it's better than what you think.

B. Vocabulary:

Climate predict destroy imperfect unpredictable precipitation

1. _____ is weather patterns over days, weeks season, and year of time. It helps forecasters predict weather effectively.
2. Nobody could predict the outcome.
3. Heat gradually _____ Vitamin C.
4. The weather was _____.
5. The result is entirely _____.
6. There is an increase in annual _____ in Taiwan.

C. Reading comprehension Questions:

___1. Typhoons will not cause: 1) floods 2) winds 3) monsoons 4) storms

D. Decide whether the following statements are true or false?

- ___1. The data from satellites out in space is only used to predict the weather in Taiwan.
- ___2. Forecasts in Taiwan are usually right because the weather never changes.
- ___3. The winds in a typhoon travel at more than 150 kilometres per hour; however, its rain never causes floods.
- ___4. South Taiwan's northeast monsoon brings heavy rainfall during the winter, while the North's southwest monsoon brings typhoons from June to October and heavy rainfall.
- ___5. Winter's average temperatures is 64 degrees F; however, summer's appears 82 degrees F.

E. Find out the Main Idea

____ What is the main idea of this passage? 1) The description of how weather is so changeable in Taiwan. 2) The explanation of how typhoons cause disasters. 3) The description of how weather reporters use the information collected from all sources.

F. Post-reading Questions:

1. When does typhoon season in Taiwan usually start? How long does it last?
2. In what kinds of disasters do typhoons usually result?
3. What will Taiwan's northern and southern monsoons bring?
4. Do you like Taiwan's summer weather or winter weather? Why?

G. TBLT Activity

There is a map (A and B, see attached files) of Taiwan with one of your handouts. With your partner find an information gap regarding cities' temperature. Then talk in your cooperative learning group to find out:

1. Which season of Taiwan is it?
2. Which kind of weather is common around Taiwan?
3. How do you dress during this type of weather?

After group discussion, report your answer to the class. (Time allotted is about 5 minutes for each group report)

Appendix 7 Sample 1 – Unit One Lesson Plan

Topic: Taiwan’s climate	
Students’ level: Lower intermediate level	Year of University: the first-year
Lesson Duration: 80-100 minutes (two-class periods)	Number of Students: 19

Teaching aims:

It is expected that the learners can

- 1) Strengthen their knowledge of new words or phrases
- 2) Gain knowledge about how Taiwan’s climate and weather information is collected
- 3) Pre-reading questions can help students to find the key elements and details of the story when skimming through the reading later.
- 4) To know more about Taiwan’s geography and climate and gain understanding and appreciation of their native country.

Materials:

In-class activities: Class handouts (Teacher self-made reading and authentic reading materials), a Taiwan map, chalk, Taiwan photos on books and postcards, bilingual or picture dictionaries)

Presumption about the learners:

The learners have had some grammar knowledge, such as indefinite pronouns, tenses, and conjunctions. They also need to have valuable experiences with and scanning reading strategies.

Tasks

Please see lesson Procedures for details, preparation and procedures of the following activities

Pre-task Phrases:

Warm-up activity: Taiwan’s map illustration and discussion (5 minutes)

The aim in this case is to motivate the students’ active participation while the teacher names each Taiwanese city, county, or nearby island surrounding Taiwan. The students automatically associate their background knowledge and quickly point

out correct locations on the map. Furthermore, the teacher will give students a city weather temperature example. The students can tell the differences between the north and the south.

Introduction of the theme:

- 1 Brainstorm: New words or new phrases. (5 minutes)
- 2 Skimming practice (3-5 minutes)
- 3 Pre-reading Discussion and Assumption about the reading.(3-5 minutes)

Task Cycle Phrase

Core Tasks: Scanning (8-10 minutes)

Planning and Reporting

Post-reading Discussion (10 minutes)

- a. Reading Comprehension questions (5 minutes)
- b. Activity discussion (5 minutes)

Language Focus Phrase

1. Post-reading Exercises (15 minutes)
2. Interview and report (10 minutes)

Closure:

1. Fill out cooperative learning worksheet (5 minutes)
2. My Diary (Writing in-class journal) (10-15 minutes)

Extension Activity:

Research on the Internet regarding regional weather forecasts.

Experiment Lesson Procedures

Pre-reading Stage: Before starting Lesson 1, motivate the students' active participation while the teacher names each Taiwanese city, county, or nearby island surrounding Taiwan and the students automatically associate their background knowledge and quickly point out the location on the map. Furthermore, the teacher will give students a city weather temperature example. The students can tell the differences between the north and the south. A pair discussion is then followed by the pre-reading questions activity.

Task 1

Pre-reading Discussion and Assumptions about the reading

Teaching Aim:

1. Encourage students to think through the question. "Are weather forecasts usually correct in Taiwan? Why or Why not?"
2. Stimulate students' motivation for participation and involvement.
3. Pre-reading questions can help students to find the key elements and details of the reading when skimming reading later.

Focus: Reading and speaking

Time: 5-7 minutes

Materials: class reading handouts

Procedure:

1. Write down the title of the reading on the board and organize students into pairs. Have students look at the title of the story and Taiwan map, and guess what the reading is about. (Emphasize what, where, who and why).
2. Brainstorm some vocabulary related to the reading and have them find the words in the reading
3. Have students look at pre-reading questions on their handouts. Have them discuss with their partner.
4. Provide a little time for the students to prepare for their answers and then ask one or two groups to share their guesses.

Variation:

The "Pre-reading Questions" activity can be omitted for upper-intermediate students, and instead, a "Post-reading Question Sheet" activity, in which students can write their own key questions based on the story plot, can be substituted.

During Reading Stage:

Task 2

Skimming and vocabulary Brainstorming"

Aims

Help students to practice their skimming reading skills
Extend the students' vocabulary competence.

Focus: Reading skill; vocabulary learning or review

Time: 5 minutes

Materials: Class handouts and pens

Procedure:

1. Have the students quickly skim through the story and circle the new words they are not sure about or would like to know in the second or third columns of the table in Activity A. (Remind them not to write in the first column)
2. After finishing the reading, have students work in pairs and compare their vocabulary charts. They are allowed to help each other with the meaning of the new words. Pick on a group to share their list (column 2 and 3) and allow other groups to add new words to the list afterwards.
3. Go through the new vocabulary with the students and make sure of their understanding of the new words (The students are allowed to use dictionaries.)

Important notes:

1. Try to avoid explaining the new vocabulary at this stage since It is meaningful for the students when they read the words from the context. Encourage students to discover the relationship between these new words and the context.
2. The first column should only be completed at the end of the lesson as a review of the material.

During the Reading stages:

Task 3 Scanning

Aims:

Help students with their scanning skills and reading comprehension skills.

Time: 10 minutes

Focus: Scanning, reading comprehension

Materials: Reading samples

Procedure:

1. Have the students scan through the reading and underline the sentences, which are related to the pre-reading questions (questions in Exercise B).
2. Allow the students to confirm the meanings of the new words, which have not yet been covered in class and also discuss the answers to the pre-reading questions to check their understanding. (Provide assistance to the students who still have problems with the new words or questions.) Also allow them to compare how the reading is different or similar to how they first imagined it would be before actually reading it.

Post-reading Stage

A. Activity

Post-reading Discussion (10 minutes)

Focus: Critical thinking and speaking

1. Divide the class into 5 cooperative teams and ask the students to share their opinions on the two questions provided in Activity C.
2. Ask for volunteers to share their opinions with the class.
3. Writing their Class Diary.

Or

Divide the class into 5 cooperative teams and provide them time to share their opinions on the two questions provided in Activity C.

1. Give out a paper to each group and ask each group to write down 3-5 comprehension questions that are related to the reading.
2. Exchange the question sheets with another group and answer the questions designed by the group with whom they exchanged in the first place.
3. Writing their Class Diary.

Complete the Tense Table (Activity – AA) & Substitutions (Activity-AB) (10-15 minutes)

These activities can be used as in-class exercises or independent exercises after class, depending on students' level of English and the pace of the class discussion.

Focus: Grammar: tenses and sentence structures

Provide students some time to work individually on Activities AA and AB. Have them self-check their answers with their partner.

Important Notes:

These two exercises should be considered as reinforcements of students' previous grammar knowledge in a more comprehensive context. However, if the students show a tendency to lack knowledge on these related grammar points, more time should be arranged for practice.

Extension Activity

Focus: Research skills

Encourage students to do further research on the subject independently.

Notes for teachers: Brainstorm with the class about on which questions they would like to do research. Assign each small group some questions on they want to work.

B. Suggestions on Follow-up Activities

The following are some suggestions on useful follow-up activities to enhance different language skills.

Focus: Listening and writing

Materials: pens, papers, and a text (teacher should choose a related text that one of the students has found from the Internet for their Extension Activity).

Procedure:

Choose a short text with maximum of about 100 words. Discuss any vocabulary that needs a specific explanation.

1. Read the text at normal speed pausing between sentence units while the students listen. Ask the students to write down words from memory in a column afterwards.
2. Read the text again and allow the students to add words or make changes afterwards. Discussion and sharing between peers is allowed at this stage (Repeat this step about 3-4 times).
3. Provide the students with the original text and have them compare it with their own writing.

Appendix 8-1 Pre-test (GEPT) Sample 1

1. The young man was _____ for three months for stealing a car.
A. jail
B. cabin
C. agency
D. chamber
2. The Smiths considered buying the two-bedroom apartment, but they decided it wouldn't _____ the needs of their growing family.
A. see
B. meet
C. consider
D. understand
3. We're just going to the night market, so you don't need to _____.
A. take place
B. look over
C. dress up
D. set free
4. Mrs. Winters wants people to think she's in her thirties, but her _____ age is forty-two.
A. honorable
B. familiar
C. suitable
D. actual
5. Ms. Lee told us that one student in our class failed the course. At that time we didn't know who she was _____.
A. talking
B. preparing
C. referring to
D. wondering about
6. A tree's limbs are its branches. An animal also _____ limbs—its arms and legs.
A. is
B. are
C. has
D. have

Appendix 8-2 Pre-test (GEPT) Sample 2

Questions 35-36

SUMMER SALE AT CARPET WORLD

Don't miss this once-in-a-lifetime opportunity to own a high quality hand-woven carpet. In our warehouse you'll find hundreds of carefully-selected carpets imported directly from India, Iran and Afghanistan. Experts are on (5) hand to answer your questions. Each carpet comes with a one-year guarantee against defects. If you are not completely satisfied with your purchase, your money will be cheerfully refunded. Monthly payments can be arranged. Take up to one year to pay. Don't delay!

(10) Remember - sale ends July 30.

35. What can be inferred about the carpets on sale?
- A. There is a wide variety.
 - B. They are second-hand.
 - C. They are made by local people.
 - D. The number of carpets for sale is limited.
36. According to the advertisement, if you shop at Carpet World, you can
- A. get professional help at any of its local stations
 - B. have a 12-month carpet cleaning service for free
 - C. get your money back if you are not happy with the carpet in any way
 - D. either buy or rent a carpet on a yearly or monthly basis

Appendix 9-1 Post-test (GEPT) Sample 1

第一部份：詞彙和結構

本部份共 15 題，每題含一個空格。請就試題冊上 A、B、C、D 四個選項中選出最適合題意的字或詞，標示在答案紙上。

1. Mr. Peters is famous for his generosity, but we should never _____ it for granted.
A. make
B. look
C. take
D. mean
2. After her parents died in a plane crash, Maria was _____ by her aunt.
A. watched for
B. fed up
C. carried on
D. brought up
3. Although the teacher disliked the girl's unusual hairstyle, the principal decided that it was _____.
A. received
B. recognized
C. available
D. acceptable
4. Using a microscope, we can examine things that are not _____ to the naked eye.
A. visible
B. useful
C. voluntary
D. separate
5. Jessie ran into her boss on _____ occasions and found he was always wearing a suit.
A. regional
B. numerous
C. extreme
D. illustrated
6. We _____ our host for a lovely evening and drove straight home.
A. thank
B. thanked
C. are thanking
D. were thanking
7. Sorry I'm late. I _____ to stop by the post office on my way here this morning.
A. need
B. was able
C. had
D. ought
8. Wu Bai (伍佰) is _____ the most popular local singers in Taiwan today.
A. around
B. across
C. along
D. among
9. Special features of the new car model _____ a television and a phone.
A. include
B. including
C. are included
D. to include

Questions 40-43

Soccer Tryouts

(5) Are you a soccer player? Would you like to represent our school on the boys' or girls' soccer team? If so, come to our soccer tryouts! They will be held on the main soccer field on Friday, August 10 at 4:00 P.M. At the tryouts, you will have a chance to demonstrate your soccer skills to the coaches of the boys' and girls' soccer teams.

(10) Wear a T-shirt, shorts and a good pair of sports shoes to the tryouts. All other equipment will be provided. One week after the tryouts, check this bulletin board to see if you made one of the teams!

(15) *F.Y.I.
The soccer season will begin with a home game against Beachwood High School on September 3 and will end with a tournament on November 10.*

P.E. Department

40. Who will respond to this announcement?

- A. Players already selected for the school's soccer teams
- B. Players from the Beachwood High School soccer team
- C. Coaches for the boys' and girls' soccer teams
- D. Students who want to play on the school's soccer teams

41. When will the results of the tryouts be announced?

- A. August 10
- B. August 17
- C. September 3
- D. November 10

42. What item will be provided at the tryouts?

- A. Shorts
- B. T-shirts
- C. Soccer balls
- D. Sports shoes

43. What can we infer from lines 12-15?

- A. The soccer season will last for about two months.
- B. The first game will be played at Beachwood High School.
- C. Players from Beachwood High School team are better.
- D. Players will take a trip together after the soccer season.

Appendix 10-1

Students' Self-reflective format for the First 4Week

Sample 1

Date: _____ Dept. _____ Name: _____

Writing Sample in class as follows:

The class is very easy/ difficult for me to understand. It is ~~difficult~~ because Chapter _____ is very challenge for me to read and think. It's easy because class activities are so interesting that I have fun to work with others as a team.

For example, ^{By discussing jobs you like with your partners.} _____ (Title of the reading) is so ~~different~~ ^{easy} from the other readings I read before. There are some lots of new words or complex grammar that I don't really understand. However, I enjoy reading it and share my doubts with my classmates. Or, I don't like to read and share my opinions with my team. Another reason that I enjoy reading is sit sit sit PAR part II.

In summary, I like/ dislike the class because In ~~sa~~ summary I like the class because it funny.
I am looking forward to next class. I hope to make a little progress in reading and speaking English next class.

I have learned guess new words' meaning.

I need to practice my speak, read and listen ability.

Appendix 10-2

Students' Self-reflective format for the First 4Week

Sample 2

Date: _____ Dept. _____ Name: _____

Writing Sample in class as follows:

The class is very easy/ difficult for me to understand. It is difficult because Chapter _____ is very challenge for me to read and think. It's easy because class activities are so interesting that I have fun to work with others as a team.

For example, which job fits me (Title of the reading) is so different from the other readings I read before. There are some/ lots of new words or complex grammar that I don't really understand. However, I enjoy reading it and share my doubts with my classmates. Or, I don't like to read and share my opinions with my team. Another reason that I enjoy reading is I learn many new words and read quicker than just

In summary, I like/ dislike the class because a teacher's teach way let me easy to understand.

I am looking forward to next class. I hope to make a little progress in reading and speaking English next class.

1. ^{skills} I have learned well reading.

2. ^{skills} I ~~have~~ need to practice communication.

Students' Self-reflective Weekly Logs for the Rest of 8 Weeks

by Julia Hsu

Name:

Probe	At the beginning of the course	At the end of the course
This class I studied:		
This class I learned some activities:		
This class I used my English in these places:		
This class I spoke English with some people:		
This class I made these mistakes:		
My difficulties are:		
I would like to know:		
I would like help with:	i.e. Dictionary or my notebook	
My learning and practicing plans for next week are:		

Appendix 12-1

Small-Group Observation Sheet

Sample 1

Small-Group Observation Sheet

小組觀察單

日期: 3/28 單元: 2 Vocabulary Structure Dialogue Reading

隊名: F.F.J.C

觀察員: [REDACTED]

(完全沒有做到=1, 似乎沒有做到=2, 普通=3, 似乎有做到=4, 做得很好=5)

姓名							
項目							
發言次數 (用正字劃記)	4	3	4	3			
鼓勵別人發言 (用正字劃記)	3	4	4	3			
提供資訊、答案或建議	4	4	4	4			
總結、支持別人意見	4	4	4	4			

* 這堂課表現如何 (由小組討論後再由觀察員記錄下來)?

(1) 小組優良事蹟 (至少列出二點):

funny - 討論熱烈

(2) 小組需要改進的是 (至少列出一點):

活動流程中斷

(3) 小組遭遇的困難是:

NO

(4) 小組這次的「最認真參與者」、「最會鼓勵同學者」各是誰?

「最認真參與者」: [REDACTED]

「最會鼓勵同學者」: [REDACTED]

Appendix 12-2 Small-Group Observation Sheet

Sample 2

Small-Group Observation Sheet

小組觀察單

日期: 5/16 單元: MR⁴ Vocabulary Structure Dialogue Reading
 隊名: FFJC.8 觀察員

(完全沒有做到=1, 似乎沒有做到=2, 普通=3, 似乎有做到=4, 做得很好=5)

項 目 \ 姓 名							
發言次數 (用正字劃記)	正	正	正	正			
鼓勵別人發言 (用正字劃記)	正	正	正	正			
提供資訊、答案或建議	3	4	3	4			
總結、支持別人意見	4	3	4	3			

*這堂課表現如何 (由小組討論後再由觀察員記錄下來)?

(1) 小組優良事蹟 (至少列出二點):

討論熱烈 參與度高

(2) 小組需要改進的是 (至少列出一點):

閱讀速度

(3) 小組遭遇的困難是:

閱讀較慢

(4) 小組這次的「最認真參與者」、「最會鼓勵同學者」各是誰?

「最認真參與者」:

「最會鼓勵同學者」:

Appendix 12-3 Small-Group Observation Sheet

(English Version)

Date: _____ Lesson _____ Vocabulary Structure Dialogue Reading

Team Name: _____ Group Observer Name: _____

(Not at all: 1 Rare Practice: 2 Average: 3 Almost Done: 4 Well Done: 5)

Observation Items List	Name of Member 1	Name of Member 2	Name of Member 3	Name of Member 4	Name of Member 5
Who gave the most talking and sharing?					
Who encouraged others' talking?					
Who frequently provided information or suggestions?					
Who made conclusions and/ or supported others' opinions?					

● How does every member perform in this class? (Group Observer Marking)

1. List the strength within your group (at least 2 things):
2. List the things need to be improved (at least 2 things):
3. List the difficulties within your group:
4. Name “the most hard-working person” and “the most encouraging student” in your group?
- 4-1 Who is “the most hard-working person?”
- 4-2 Who is “the most encouraging student?”

Appendix 13 List of small-group labour division

Adapted from Kagan (1989)

List of Small-Group Labor Division

小組角色分配及分工表				
Team : _____		Date : _____		Recorder : _____
Lesson _____	Vocabulary	Dialogue	Reading	Sentence pattern
Topic or Theme :				
Activity :				
角色分配與分配工作 :				
* 組長(Leader) : _____				
* 紀錄(Recorder) : _____				
* 報告員(Reporter) : _____				
* 計時員/觀察員(Timer/Observer) : _____				
* 資料員(Materials Manager) : _____				
* 檢察員(Checker) : _____				
* 教練員(Monitor) : _____				

Appendix 14 Cooperative learning self-evaluation sheet

Cooperative Learning Self-Evaluation Sheet

合作學習—學生自我檢核表（學生用）

教學單元	2. Traditional Regional Dishes	檢核日期	3/25			
班級	11-19	姓名				
檢核項目		Always	Usually	Often	Seldom	Never
我會多發言			✓			
我會鼓勵別人			✓			
我會專心聆聽		✓				
我會協助同學			✓			
我會遵守規矩			✓			
我會工作盡責		✓				
我的學習態度認真			✓			
我能理解課程內容			✓			
我能讚美別人的優點		✓				
我能檢討自己之缺失並加以改進		✓				

Appendix 15 Evaluation sheet of group performance

Evaluation Sheet of Group Performance

Evaluation Sheet of Group Performance

Lesson 96 Date: 5/2

Activity: park

※Ranks: Excellent=4, Good=3, Fair=2, Needs improvement=1

Group Names Items	am school	FHIC	more water	No Name	CSIE	
Content (30%)	23	25	25	23	24	
Performance (15%)	11	9	8	10	12	
Cooperation (30%)	26	20	20	21	25	
Teaching Aids (15%)	10	10	10	10	10	
Attitudes (10%)	10	8	8	9	10	
Sum	80	72	71	83	81	

※Content: evaluating the content of the group activity, accuracy, creativity,

Performance: evaluating the performance of the small group, fluency, pronunciation, body language and gestures, time control

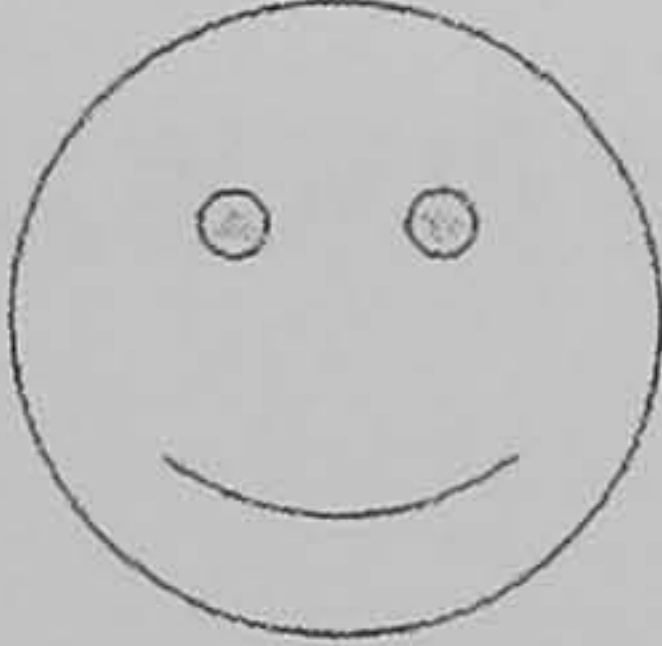

Cooperation: evaluating the cooperation level of group members, diffusion of group tasks

Teaching Aids: poster and props, beauty, accuracy, and creativity

Attitudes: concentration level, group order (as the audience)

Appendix 16 Interactive worksheet of dialogue with cartoons

Interactive Worksheet of Dialogue with Cartoons

Group:	Leader: Reporter: Captain:	Timer: Recorder:	Checker: Quiet
Lesson:	1. Section: Dialogue #2		
<div><div><p>Which do you like, _____ or _____?</p></div><div><p>I like _____.</p></div><div></div><div></div></div>			
I want to thank _____ in my group because			

Appendix 17 Interview Transcript Sample 1

訪談（6） 學習合作小組組員 （2 位學生）

日期: 5 月 29 日

T: 研究員

S1: 學生 1

S2: 學生 2

以下是訪談內容

T: 首先謝謝你們今天來訪談。

S1: 嗯。

S2: 嗯。

T: 你喜歡這學期的英文課? 如果給自己一個分數, 由 1 到 10, 你會給自己幾分?

S1: 大概 6、7 分。

S2: 7 分。

T: 課堂上的課程以單元為主, 還記得哪些單元嗎?

S1: 氣象的單元。

S2: 租屋的廣告。

T: 你比較喜歡哪個課程單元?

S1: 食物的那篇。

T: 為什麼?

S: 因為最近越來越多的餐廳用英文的廣告報紙上登出, 而且這方面的資訊可以幫助未來如果要出國可能會用到的部份。不管是什麼英文性質, 一定是頻率最高的。

T: 那另一位同學, 印象比較深刻的是哪個單元?

S: 也是點餐的那課。

T: 點餐。

S: 因為很實用。

T: 其它的單元呢?

S2: 其它的單元我覺得還好。

T: 所以覺得比較實用的會比較喜歡, 對嗎?

S2: 比較常會去接觸。

T: 覺得小組學習有沒有任何的益處?

S1: 覺得可以互相幫助, 一起找答案, 小組還可以引起動機去討論。

T: 還有呢?

S1: 還有就是比較不會那麼悶, 譬如說一個人看就比較會看不懂。

T: OKAY. 那另一位同學覺得小組學習有沒有任何的益處呢?

S2: 閱讀速度會比較快。

S1: 閱讀起來也比較能加強印象，就是對方有講過的話日後想起來，會比較有印象。

T: 小組中討論時，有沒有任何阻礙？

S1: 不會。

S2: 還好。

T: 如果小組裡中不熟絡或是不積極的時候呢？

S1: 因為小組都是男生，比較不會有這方面的問題。

T: 覺得閱讀時，速度會不會不夠？

S1: 如果是認識的字，但是還是單字量不夠。

T: 單字量不夠。還有呢？

S1: 理解力的部份。

T: 告訴我多些有關細節的部份。

S1: 就是單字都理解，但是都放在一起還是會念不懂。

T: 覺得是單字、文法、還是句子結構的問題？

S2: 句子結構。

T: 閱讀活動的部份，你們的印象中哪個單元最難？

S2: CLOZE 單元。

T: CLOZE 的單字部份。

S1: 也是單字的部份太少，不瞭解。

T: 覺得小組進行中發生困難的時候，通常都是如何解決的？

S2: 小組中會有分配的工作，指定的工作結束時，大家會一起把結果找出來。

T: 是否是小組合作，協力幫助大家將工作完成呢？

S1: 是

T: 那其他人，會如何解決呢？

S1: 大家會彼此將知道的答案講出來，或是共同找出來。

T: 小組中是否會有競爭性？

S1: 不會。

S2: 不會。

T: 所以每個組員都是盡力幫助別人。如果有一個閱讀工作單字很多，你們會如何解決？

S2: 猜單字。

S1: 猜字。

T: 現在會比較習慣查字典的單字還是猜字呢？

S1: 現在猜字比較多。像以前會把整篇單字都查出來，但是現在小組上課中，反而不會這樣做了。

T: 嗯。(片刻) 因為這堂課後，有沒有因此想組成一個閱讀小組？

S1: 還沒有。

T: 有沒有這樣的一個想法？
S1: 小組可以引起動機去討論。
T: 覺得討論時，有沒有其它的因素而無法盡情的討論？
S2: 太累，尤其遇到期中考或是期末考的時候。
T: 有沒有其它的因素而無法專心投入？
S1: 應該還好。
T: 小組討論是否在自信心上感覺有增加？
S1: 嗯
T: 如果是 1-10 的評分，自信心的部份是？
S1: 6 分。
S2: 6 分。
T: 溝通技巧呢？
S2: 7 分。
S1: 6 分。
T: 人際關西呢？
S1: 7 分。
S2: 6 分。
T: 閱讀速度呢？
S1: 7 分。
S2: 7 分
T: 閱讀速度呢？
S1: 7 分。
S2: 8 分
T: 討論之後，字彙的部份有無增加？增加是 5 分以上，沒有增加是 5 以下。
S1: 6 分。
S2: 5 分。
T: 會希望老師考單字？
S1: 應該還 OKAY.
T: 那另一位同學呢？
S2: 稍為考一下。
T: 為什麼？
S2: 因為閱讀字彙瞭解太少。每次指定少量範圍的單字，可以很快去記。這樣多少記一些單字，就如同上學棋平時有考單字。然後就比較有記單字，也比較知道如何去記單字。
T: 那考試後單字還會記得嗎？
S: 如果常看原文書的話，常出現還是會記得。
T: 閱讀技巧中，給自己 1-10 評分，會給自己....
S1: 7 分。

T: 多告訴我一些？
S1: 閱讀技巧進步最多，因為常練習。
T: 那另一位同學覺得，給自己 1-10 評分，會給自己....
S2: 7 分
T: 多告訴我一些？
S2: 閱讀技巧進步最多，因為常常需要閱讀。
T: 覺得目前，最需要改善的部份是？
S1: 看單字的部份。
T: 原因是.....
S1: 因為有一半都是單字的問題不懂。
T: 那另一位同學覺得呢？
S2: 可能看單字 2、3 次後就會記得。但可能是單字太少，看不懂就要想很久。
T: 單字量是需要程度比縣現在稍高一些，還是程度難易適中？
S1: 程度難一點。
S2: 單字像是形容詞、動詞多學一些。還有專有名詞之類也是。
T: 還有呢？
S2: 比較不常接觸的單字也需要。
T: 有沒有期他的建議？
S1: 沒有。
S2: 沒有。
T: 謝謝你們。
S1: 謝謝。
S1: 謝謝。

Interview transcript

(English Version)

Date: 29 May, 2006

Time 3.05pm

Venue: XX University, Taipei, Taiwan

R: Researcher

S1: Student 1 in a CTBL project

S2: Student 2 in a CTBL project

R: Thank you for coming to our interview today.

S1: Umm.....

S2: Thank you.

R: Do you enjoy reading in class? On a scale of one to 10 how would you rate the enjoyment of reading or related reading activities in class ?
Number 1 is the least enjoyable; number 10 is the most enjoyable.

S1: About 6 or 7.

S2: 7.

R: Did you remember any of the units in the semester curriculum?

S1: Taiwan's Geography and Climate

S2: Rental Ads.

R: Which one did you prefer amongst all units?

S1: Food.

R: Why?

S1: I like the theme of food because there are more and more restaurant advertisements in English newspapers. Also, this type of information helps me since I can use this input when I study abroad in the near future. Food is the most popular of all topics.

R: How about other class members? What was the most impressive of the course units?

S2: Also the same.

R: Food.

S2: Because it's practical.

R: Any other unit?

S2: They are okay with me.

R: So, you would like a given unit more than the others if they were more practical, is that it?

S2: It is rather close to a real life situation.

R: Is there any advantage in studying in a cooperative learning group?

S1: I feel that in CTBL group work we can help each-other and seek answers together...CTBL group work motivates us to discuss...

R: Is there anything else?

S1: In addition, CTBL group reading is less boring. I can understand more of the content material through group reading.

R: How about other people? Are there any advantages working in a cooperative learning group?

S2: Reading speed to me is faster than before.

S1: Reading in a group promotes longer retention than reading on my own. In other words, members' opinions remain in my memory with longer retention rates than before.

R: Are there any drawbacks in group discussions?

S1: No.

S2: Okay.

R: Would there be any problems in group discussion?

S1: There is no such a problem because we are all males. (p.s. no female in this group seems a good group discussion in it.)

R: Is there enough time for you while reading?

S1: It would be sufficient if I knew every single word, but my English vocabulary is lacking.

R: I see: insufficient English vocabulary. Is there anything else?

S1: Comprehension.

R: Can you tell me more about this problem?

S1: I understand all the words, but I do not understand all of the meanings when I look at the entire context.

R: Do you think the problems lie in lack of vocabulary, grammar, or sentence structure?

S2: Sentence structure.

R: What do you think are the most difficult areas of all reading activities/tasks?

S2: The activity of CLOZE quiz. (p.s. CLOZE: fill out the blank with the proper words or phrases in the passage.)

R: CLOZE quiz?

S1: I don't understand because of my limited vocabulary.

R: How do you usually solve this problem when you encounter these difficulties in group tasks?

S2: There would be assigned jobs for everyone on our team thus before the allotted time were up, all group members could achieve effective results by working together.

R: Does this result occur because the team members work with each other to finish the task together?

S1: Yes.

R: How do other members accomplish this task?

S1: Everyone will share the part of answers they know or find the answers together.

R: Is there any competition in these groups?

S1: No.

S2: No.

R: So everyone in your team does your best to help one another. How do you solve the difficulty if there is a lot of vocabulary in one unit?

S1: Guess the meaning of the word.

S2: Same.

R: Do you prefer looking things up in the dictionary to guessing the contextual meaning of words?

S1: Now guessing the meaning of words is my focus. I used to look up all words in the dictionary. However I will not do it in group work.

R: Umm.....Is there any move toward teaming up in a study group after this reading class?

S1: Not yet.

R: Have you thought about it?

S2: CTBL group work could motivate us to discuss...

R: Is there any impediment, which stops you in not getting what you want or need in order to produce the desired outcome in a group discussion?

S2: I feel very tired especially when we have mid-term or final exams.

R: Are there any other factors causing you not to focus on or becoming involved in group discussion?

S1: I feel no problem.

R: Do you feel group discussions can help you to gain confidence?

S1: Umm...

R: On a scale from 1 to 10, how do you rate your sense of confidence?

S1: 6.

S2: 6.

R: How about your communicative skills?
S1: 7.
S2: 6.
R: How about your social skills?
S1: 7.
S2: 6.
R: How about your reading speed?
S1: 7.
S2: 7.
R: Do you feel it helps you to increase your vocabulary in a group discussion?
If you think so, your answer is above 5 points. If you don't think so, your
answer is below 5 points.
S1: 6.
S2: 5.
R: Do you think you need the teacher to assign you a vocabulary quiz?
S1: Okay.
R: How about the other person?
S2: Yes.
R: Why?
S2: Because my reading vocabulary is limited. If there would be a small range
of vocabulary assigned for each class, I would learn these words fast by
recitation. Like last semester's vocabulary tests, I would repeat some
vocabulary to know how to understand the meanings of these words.
R: Can you remember all vocabulary after the tests?
S2: I still can remember some if I often read English textbooks.
R: How would you rate your reading skills on a scale from 1 to 10?
S1: 7.
R: Tell me more.
S1: My reading skills are improving the most because we often practice reading
skills.
R: How about the other student?
S2: 7.
R: Tell me more.
S2: My development of reading skills is also improving the most because
knowledge of new words is often required when reading.
R: So far, in what area would you like to improve the most?
S1: Vocabulary.
R: And the reason is.....?

S1: Because lack of vocabulary constitutes at least half of my reading problems.
R: And the other person?
S2: I can remember after reading words 2 or 3 times. However, my limited vocabulary requires me to spend more time while reading.
R: Do you need intermediate or higher level vocabulary?
S1: A slightly difficult level.
S2: I need more vocabulary involving adjectives, verbs and nouns.
R: Do you have any suggestions?
S1: No.
S2: No.
R: Thank you both.
S1: Thank you.
S2: Thank you.

Appendix 18 Teacher's Self-reflective Fomat Sample 1

My Class Teaching Diary

Week 3 Unit 2

Topic: Taiwan's regional food

Probe	Reflection of the teacher
The objective of the class	The learners will be able to: 1) Learn and use new words or phrases in their daily lives 2) Be able to communicate in using simple sentence patterns in English 3) Practice and develop their reading related to regional food in Taiwan with some unknown words 4) Practice reading with purposeful intention (to seek answers) 5) Gain more knowledge about how to name regional foods and menus in the restaurant or local food stores and share their thoughts with one another. 6) Practice applying their reading strategies to read menus in restaurants or local food stores. 7) Practice how to report orally on the reading materials in their own words to their partners and also to use the new words while performing this task. 8) Work cooperatively to finish their tasks.
In this class I teach these activities:	Predicting what you read Skimming the main idea Scanning information
I used my English in these places:	I instructed students what to do on their given tasks and helped them to solve their problems through group discussion.
I spoke English with some people:	Tried to answer questions from all group members or individuals while I was walking among the groups or speaking in front of the class.
I made these mistakes:	I should have had one or two student assistants to help me write some points on the blackboard while I was talking.
My difficulties are:	I gave some written material for students to practice their English in groups. Some pupils did not know what to do.
I would like to know:	I would like to see how students respond to my questions regarding problem- solving skills in discussions with one another.

I would like help by:	Videotaping the whole class to help me in developing better teaching instruction skills in the following classes.
Other thoughts	<p>At the beginning of the class, I (the teacher) used the activities to warm up the team. First, I showed to my students authentic restaurant menus, such as Fridays or Pizza Hut and then asked several questions. Later, I asked each group to present menus, which they had prepared before the class. During the previous class I had asked them to bring menus to today's session and three groups showed their given menus. The topic was Taiwanese regional food, and it indeed interested in them.</p> <p>Then, I saw teams working together in earnest discussions because I had assigned each group the task of talking about this food subject. I walked among the class while the students asked me questions. Later on, each group performed a role-play relating to the topic on their handouts. During 10-minute preparation time, each team member actively participated in his/her lyrics and roles. I encouraged them not to follow the sample lines I gave them in the handouts, but rather to use their imaginations to think of what to say. I thus saw a lot of interaction and active discussion among the teams. When time was up, each group started to perform in order: FFJU, CSIE, More Water, No Name, and Cram School. The role-play story was to create a situation in which people were eating in a restaurant. Suddenly, there was something found in the food, such as someone's hair, a fly, etc. Each team then used their limited vocabulary but interesting interaction to role-play on stage. I saw many groups exhibit through body language a sense of humour and vivid group performances. I also observed much laughing going on while groups were role-playing. They successfully performed on the podium with every team member taking one role. Although some members spoke only a few words in their group play activities, the audience could understand their story by watching students' body language and key gestures.</p> <p>3</p> <p>Finally, we discussed some structurally correct forms usage during the phase of language analysis. I saw some students concentrating on learning the wrong usage and thus I pointed out and wrote</p>

Cont. Other thoughts	correct forms on the blackboard. After that, I allowed pupils to write their learning diaries for a short period before the end of class. It was a fantastic experience for me to watch group members' high involvement in speaking English where they showed strong learning motivations during the presentation and the process of group `discussion.
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Appendix 19-1

Note

Observation

Sample 1

Session 11

Date: 30 May 2006

Participants: 19 students

The teacher gives the class a worksheet to do in groups and she encourages the students to talk to each other about the questions in the worksheet. This exercise improves the students speaking and listening skills. The teacher also walks around the class to make sure everyone understands the worksheet. The instructor then goes through the worksheet asking individual students to answer the questions. The teacher then gives the students a roll-play assignment to prepare a presentation with their groups. The teacher encourages the students not to memorize the worksheet but rather to try and make up what to say on their own. The students all had fun doing this assignment, which is a very good way to learn something

Appendix 19-2

Observation Note

Sample 2

Session 12

Date: 06 June 2006

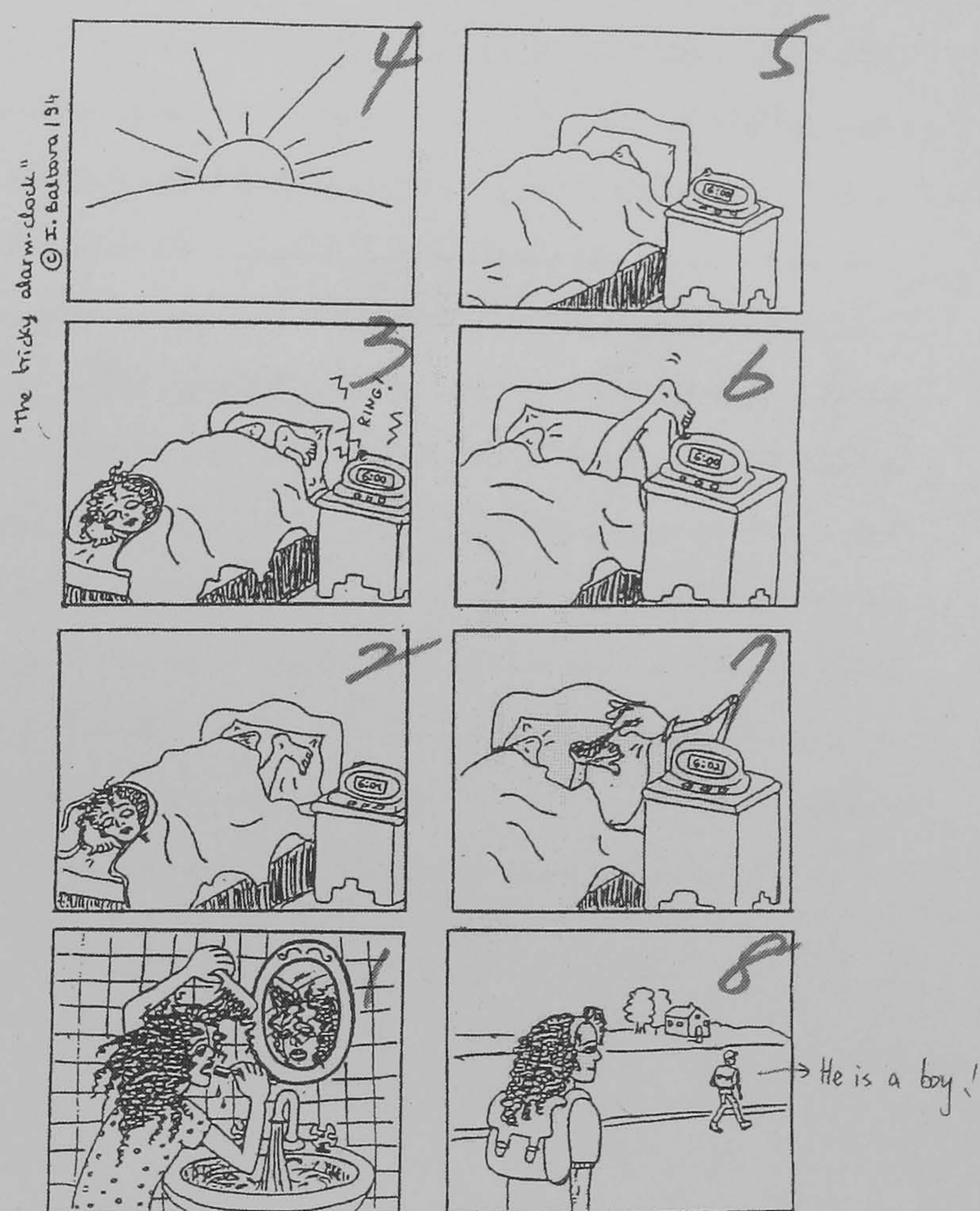
Participants: 19 students

This class is also learning about business letters and in this lesson the teacher begins also with a lecture. She starts by asking the students where they would use a business letter, stressing the importance of learning to write such correspondence. The teacher then has the pupils team up and gives them a situation in which they may have to write a business letter. She has the students discuss what they would do if they bought a broken cell phone. She walks around the room making sure everyone is correctly following her instructions. The teacher then has each pair of students pick one person to go in front of the class and talk about their results. The instructor writes their suggestions on the blackboard so she can review it with the rest of the class. She also has the pupils decide which alternative would be most effective in their situation.

Appendix 20-1

One of Students' Given Tasks and Group worksheet in Unit 3

Sample 1



Worksheet

Name: More water
Date: 4/11
No: 3

Group Assignment

Mary brushed her teeth, combed her hair and got dressed. She ^{went} ~~got~~ to sleep at 6:01 p.m. last night. Her alarm clock is rising at 6:00 am. today. And the same time the sun is rising. She still is sleeping.

→ Her alarm clock philanders with her. ~~she~~
She philanders with her alarm clock.

Suddenly, she see a ^{handsome} ~~home some~~ boy pass through her home. She jumps from bed. She ~~goes~~ follow with the boy. She is a strange woman!